pang to the heart of the old man; he ſtretched forth his hands towards the ſacred edifice, from which he was on the point of being ſeparated for ever. His eyes were filled with tears; he was heard to ſob, and the French enjoyed the happineſs of having cauſed him the moſt ſevere affliction.

At the end of the firſt day it became neceſſary to ſtop to paſs the night. Two officers were appointed to guard the Pope, and their beds were placed in the anti-chamber. There they brought in a proſtitute, with whom they paſſed the night in the moſt riotous orgies.

Twenty witneſſes can depoſe to the truth of this fact. But the Directory are not inclined to deny it; on the contrary, have they not had the meanneſs to ſuffer the *cane* ſtolen from the Sovereign Pontiff, to be preſented to them as a trophy?—have not the Journals announced the arrival of this trophy at Paris; and is it not at this moment in the Hall of Aſſembly of the Directory, on the marble table between the windows looking into the court yard?

The Pope being carried to Sienna, and ſecluded from all perſons, was yet conſidered an object of ſuſpicion. He was conducted on the 25th May to the Chartreuſe of Florence, alone, and without being ſuffered to ſpeak to any one. There, loſt to the world, he expects, in patience, the period of his ſufferings. The moſt general report, and an opinion univerſally entertained, is, that he is already poiſoned. This is a crime which will not aſtoniſh us, when committed by Frenchmen. On the 16th of June 1792, they attempted the life of the Sovereign Pontiff; he had notice given him of the attempt, and the fact was eſtabliſhed by proof, which the public ſhall ſome day, not far diſtant, receive.

HISTORY OF THE PLAYHOUSE BILL.

AN act of this ſeſſion, (1737) which is commonly denominated the Playhouſe bill, has expoſed the miniſter (Sir Robert Walpole) to no leſs obloquy, from ſubſequent writers, than his oppoſition to the reduction of intereſt, which had been propoſed juſt before.

Thoſe who thus load him with indiſcriminate cenſure, and impute this act ſolely to his *deſpotic influence*, have not paid due attention to the hiſtory of the Engliſh ſtage, to the power of the lord chamberlain over the players and theatrical repreſentations, and to the opinions of the moſt moderate and beſt informed magiſtrates, at the period of paſſing this act, which has been ſo much calumniated, and ſo little underſtood.

It is needleſs to diſcuſs the queſtion concerning the neceſſity of fixing ſome bounds to the licentiouſneſs of the ſtage. The neceſſity muſt be allowed, except by thoſe who think it fitting to ſubject to public mockery, law, government, and religion, and to expoſe magiſtrates, judges and kings, to the perſonalities of ſatire, buffoonery, and low mimickry. In all well regulated governments, the fact has been univerſally admitted, and wherever it has not been adopted, the moſt fatal conſequences have followed.

Even the freeſt democracy which perhaps ever exiſted, that of Athens, after having experienced the effects of unreſtrained licentiouſneſs in their theatrical performances, found it neceſſary to remedy the evil, and to limit the ſtage within the boundaries of common decency and juſtice.

It appears from the hiſtory of the Engliſh ſtage, that no period ever exiſted when it was not ſubject to ſuperintendance, when players were not licenſed, and when plays were not reviewed and amended, allowed or rejected. Before the reign of Henry VIII, the power of ſuperintending the king's hunting parties, the direction of the comedians, muſicians, and

other royal servants, appointed either for use or recreation, was exclusively vested in the lord chamberlain.

Under him, and subjected to his controul, was an inferior officer, who exerted himself on particular occasions for the purpose of regulating pageants, public festivals, and masquerades. This man was called by the fanciful names of the *Abbot of Misrule*, or *Lord of Pastimes*. But in the reign of Henry VIII, this temporary office was rendered regular and permanent by letters patent, and called the office of *Master of the Revels*.

Under Elisabeth, some wise regulations, with the advice of Walsingham, and co-operation of Burleigh, were made for allowing the use, but correcting the abuse of the stage; particularly, when the earl of Leicester obtained the first general licence for his theatrical servants to act stage-plays in any part of England, a proviso was added to the patent, enjoining that all comedies, tragedies, interludes and stage-plays, should be examined and allowed by the master of the revels. Thus that authority which was before confined to the pastimes of the court, was now extended to the theatrical exhibitions of the whole kingdom.

During her reign also, the privy-council exercised an authority, legislative and executive, over the dramatic world. They opened and shut playhouses; gave and recalled licences; appointed the proper seasons when plays ought to be presented or withheld; and regulated the conduct of the lord-mayor of London, and the vice-chancellors of Oxford and Cambridge, with regard to plays and players. The privy council gave Tilney, the master of the revels in 1589, two co-adjutors, a statesman, and a *divine*, to assist him in reforming comedies and tragedies.

These prudent regulations, and the wisdom with which they were exercised, were attended with the most beneficial effects. The master of the revels, by regulating the stage, and restraining the number of theatres, gave greater respectability to the profession of a player, and the genius of the drama expanded and soared to a greater height, although its limits were contracted, and its flight circumscribed.

Had not these wise regulations taken place, Shakespeare might have confined to burlesque farces, and low buffoonery, those vast powers of invention and description, which his own language alone can adequately delineate.

'The poet's eye in a fine phrenzy rolling,
Glances from heav'n to earth, from earth to heav'n,
And as imagination bodies forth
The forms of things unknown, the poet's pen
Turns them to shape, and gives to airy nothing
A local habitation and a name.'

By the wise and temperate use which the master of the revels made of his power, his weight and influence increased, and he gradually appropriated to himself the greater part of that authority, which had belonged to the lord chamberlain. During the latter part of the reign of James the First, and Charles the First, it was held by Sir Henry Herbert, nearly allied to the Earl of Pembroke, lord chamberlain, under whose prudent management the reputation and consequence of the office increased, and produced the most salutary effects, until his functions were wholly suspended, by the troubles and convulsions of the civil wars, and the fanaticism of the republicans. On the restoration of Charles the Second, the master of the revels endeavoured to reassume his former authority, but met with insuperable opposition from the proprietors and managers of the king's and duke's companies, one of whom had obtained a fresh licence to act plays, the other a renewal of a former grant. In vain the master of the revels applied

to the courts of justice for redress; in vain he appealed to the sovereign, or to the lord chamberlain; he was neither supported by the one, or countenanced by the other; his authority, though not overthrown, was considerably shaken, and his regulations were combated and despised.

During this suspension of his power, the particular differences, pretensions, or complaints, were generally settled by the personal interference of the king and duke, or referred to the decision of the lord chamberlain. In consequence of this relaxation of authority, and the libertine character of the court, the theatre was disgraced by the grossest ribaldry and obscenity, and the best authors vied who should produce the most licentious comedies. Ladies could not venture to attend a new play without masks, then daily worn, and admitted into the pit, the side boxes, and the gallery.

On the death of Sir Henry Herbert, the mastership of the revels was conferred on Charles Killigrew, manager of the king's company. The union of these two functions increased the evil, and the smallest check was not imposed on the glaring immorality of the stage.

At the revolution, the power of the lord chamberlain over the theatre was revived without restriction. He opened and shut play houses, imprisoned and licensed players, corrected and rejected plays. Under him the master of the revels seems to have recovered some part of his former power, and to have had his share in the revolutions of the theatre. He revised and sanctioned plays, and his aid greatly contributed to the celebrated conquest which Jeremy Collier, by the publication of his short view of the stage, obtained over the immorality of the drama. In this publication, the most profane and obscene passages in several modern plays, which have been written by Dryden, Vanburgh, Wycherly, Congreve, and the most admired dramatic authors, were detected and exposed. The truth of his observations, which all the wit and talents of the authors, who were deservedly chastised, could not controvert, produced a surprising effect; a general outcry was roused against the licentiousness of the stage, and King William sent the following order to the playhouses, 'His majesty being informed, that notwithstanding an order made in June 1697, by the Earl of Sunderland, (then Lord Chamberlain of the king's household,) to prevent the profaneness and immorality of the stage, several plays have been lately acted, containing several expressions contrary to religion and good manners; and whereas the master of the revels hath represented, that, in contempt of the said order, the actors did neglect to leave out such profane and indecent expressions, as he had thought proper to be omitted: therefore it is his majesty's pleasure, that they shall not presume hereafter to act any thing in any play, contrary to religion and good manners, as they shall answer at their utmost peril.' At the same time, the master of the revels was commanded not to licence any plays containing irreligious or immoral expressions, and to give notice to the Lord Chamberlain, or in his absence to the vice-chamberlain, if the players presumed to act any thing which he had struck out.

But this reformation did not continue long in its full force. As soon as the first awe and panic of the actors had subsided, the stage nearly relapsed into its former immorality, all attempts to reform it became the object of theatrical wit, and were ridiculed in plays, prologues and epilogues. Although the new plays were usually more decent and moral, yet the old plays were frequently acted, without being freed from their exceptionable passages.

Either, in consequence of these proceedings, or of some disputes which arose

arose between the actors of the royal theatres, and produced the desertion of the principal performers from Drury-lane to the Haymarket, the nuisance of playhouses, and the conduct of the performers, became so flagrant, that a bill, in the twelfth year of Queen Anne, included players, who acted without a legal settlement in the places where they performed, among vagrants, and subjected them to the same penalties as rogues and vagabonds. But before the beneficial effects of this act could have time to operate, the death of the queen produced a new revolution in the drama.

Soon after the accession of George the First, the power of the master of the revels, which had been considerably circumscribed, was almost annihilated; a new patent was injudiciously granted to Sir Richard Steele, Colley Cibber, and Booth, for acting plays, without subjecting them to the licence or revision of any officer.

In consequence of this grant, the master of the revels was abridged of his power, and his dues, and his emoluments were reduced to a small salary from the Exchequer, to lodgings in Somerset-house, and to occasional fees.

At the death of Charles Killigrew, the office, thus mutilated, was conferred on Charles Henry Lee, and the decline of his power was sufficiently shown by the growing licentiousness of the stage, and the numerous pieces which offended equally against religion, decency, and common sense.

Although, in all the letters patent for acting plays from the time of Charles I, no mention was made of the Lord Chamberlain, yet he was still considered as possessing an absolute, though an undefinable authority over the stage, which he had occasionally exercised. The performance of several theatrical pieces had been prevented, particularly Lucius Junius Brutus, a prologue of Dryden to the Prophetess, Mary Queen of Scotland, and recently Polly, the sequel to the Beggar's Opera.

But as this exercise of his power had been always attended with much unpopularity, it was seldom exerted. Numerous theatres were erected in different parts of the metropolis, in which the actors performed without licence or authority. To prevent this, several attempts were made to enforce the laws then existing. An actor, who performed on the theatre in the Haymarket, without licence, was taken from the stage, by the warrant of a justice of the peace, and committed to Bridewell, as coming under the penalty of the vagrant act. The legality of the commitment was disputed; a trial ensued; it was decided, that the commedian being a housekeeper, and having a vote for electing members of parliament, did not come within the discription of the said act; and he was discharged amid the loud acclamations of the populace. The issue of this trial gave full scope to the licentiousness of the stage, and took away all hopes of restraining the number of playhouses.

From this representation of the state of the drama, it is evident that some reformation was indispensibly necessary. The minister himself had long seen that necessity. The obloquy which pursued him was not confined to the press; the stage was made the vehicle of the most malignant sarcasms not expressed in the elevated tone of tragedy, or couched in sentiments and language perceptible only to men of refined understandings, but his person was brought on the stage, his actions maligned, his measures misrepresented and arraigned, and his conduct made the sport of the populace, in all the petulance of vulgar farce. He was unwilling, however, to make this a personal consideration, but rather a public and national question, in which the good of the law, constitution, religion, and morality, was intimately involved, and such an opportunity seemed to present itself, when Sir John Barnard (March 5, 1735) brought

brought in a bill 'to reſtrain the number of houſes for playing of interludes, and for the better regulating of common players of interludes.'

On his repreſenting the miſchiefs which theatres had done to the city of London, by corrupting youth, encouraging vice and debauchery, and greatly prejudicing trade, the propoſal was at firſt received with contempt and ridicule, until it was ſeconded by Sandys, Pulteney, and warmly ſupported by the miniſter himſelf. It was obſerved by a member, in the courſe of the debate, that there were at that time not leſs than ſix theatres in London. The houſe being fully convinced of the neceſſity of the bill, leave was given to bring it in without a ſingle diſſenting voice. It was accordingly, on the 3d of April, preſented, read the firſt time, and ordered to be printed; notwithſtanding petitions againſt it from the proprietor of the theatre in Goodman's-fields, and from the maſter and comptroller of the revels. It was read a ſecond time on the 14th of April.

The miniſter conceived this to be a favourable opportunity of checking the daring abuſe of theatrical repreſentation, which had arrived to a moſt extravagant height. It was propoſed to inſert a clauſe, to ratify and confirm, if not enlarge, the power of the Lord Chamberlain, in licencing plays, and at the ſame time inſinuated to the houſe, that unleſs this addition was made, the king would not paſs it. But Sir John Barnard ſtrongly objected to this clauſe. He declared that the power of the Lord Chamberlain was already two great, and had been often wantonly exerciſed, particularly in the prohibition of Polly. He ſhould therefore withdraw this bill, and wait for another opportunity of introducing it, rather than eſtabliſh by law a power in a ſingle officer, ſo much under the direction of the crown, a power which might be exerciſed in an arbitrary manner, and conſequently attended with miſchievous effects.

The attempt of Sir John Barnard having thus failed, the immorality of the drama increaſed, and the moſt indecent, ſeditious, and blaſphemous pieces were performed, and reſorted to with incredible eagerneſs. Among thoſe who principally ſupported this low ribaldry, was the celebrated Henry Fielding, who, though he never ſhone in the higher line of perfect comedy, wrote thoſe dramatic ſatires in a ſtyle agreeable to the populace. One of his pieces, called Paſquin, which was acted at the theatre at the Haymarket, ridiculed, in the groſſeſt terms, the three profeſſions of divinity, law, and phyſic, and gave general offence to perſons of morality. 'Religion, laws, government, prieſts, judges, and miniſters,' obſerves Colley Cibber, 'were laid flat at the feet of the Herculean ſatiriſt; this Drawcanſir in wit, who ſpared neither friend nor foe, who to make his poetical fame immortal, like another Eroſtrates, ſet fire to his ſtage, by writing up to an act of parliament to demoliſh it.'

This piece was peculiarly offenſive to the miniſter, becauſe it contained many perſonal alluſions and invectives. But as he was not willing to employ the power of government in a mere temporary prohibition of this and other performances, which would have been extremely unpopular, and not attended with permanent effects, he wiſhed to avail himſelf of the preſent flagrant abuſe, to prevent future repreſentations ſo diſgraceful and indecorous.

In the courſe of the ſeſſion, an opportunity offered, which he did not omit to ſeize. Giffard, the manager of Goodman's-fields theatre, brought to him a farce, called the Golden Rump, which had been propoſed for exhibition; but it is uncertain whether the intentions of the manager were to requeſt his advice on this occation, or to extort a ſum of money to prevent its repreſentaion.

The miniſter, however, paid the profits

profits which might have accrued from the performance, and detained the copy. He then made extracts of the moſt exceptionable paſſages, abounding in profaneneſs, ſedition, and blaſphemy, and ſubmitted them to ſeveral members of both parties, who were ſhocked at the extreme licentiouſneſs of the piece, and promiſed their ſupport to remedy the evil. With their advice, concurrence, and promiſe of co-operation, he read the ſeveral extracts to the houſe, and a general conviction prevailed, of the neceſſity of putting a check to the repreſentation of ſuch horrid effuſions of treaſon and blaſphemy. He acted, however, with his uſual prudence on this occaſion. He did not bring forward, as is generally ſuppoſed, an act for ſubjecting all plays to the licence of the Lord Chamberlain, and reſtraining the number of playhouſes, but contrived to introduce it by amending the vagrant act.

The bill was called, 'A bill to explain and amend ſo much of an act, made in the twelfth year of the reign of queen Anne, intituled, an act for reducing the laws relating to rogues, vagabonds, ſturdy beggars, and vagrants, and ſending them whither they ought to be ſent, as relates to the common players of interludes.' Leave was accordingly given (May 20, 1737) to bring it in, and Pelham, Doddington, Howe, the maſter of the rolls, the attorney and ſolicitor-general, were ordered to prepare it. During its rapid progreſs through the houſe, certain amendments were made, and two clauſes were added. The firſt, which occaſioned ſo much obloquy, empowered the Lord Chamberlain to prohibit the repreſentation of any theatrical performances, and compelled all perſons to ſend copies of any new plays, parts added to old plays, prologues and epilogues, fourteen days before they were acted, and not to perform them, under forfeiture of fifty pounds, and of the licence of the houſe, if any ſuch exiſted, in which the play was acted. The ſecond, which is ſaid to have been added at the inſtigation of Sir John Barnard, operated in reſtraining the number of playhouſes, by enjoining, that no perſon ſhould be authoriſed to act, except within the liberties of the city of Weſtminſter, and where the king ſhould reſide.

The bill is generally ſaid to have been warmly oppoſed in both houſes; but it is remarkable that no trace (excepting the ſpeech of Lord Cheſterfield) of this oppoſition is to be found in the periodical publications of the times, which are filled with accounts of the other debates. It is alſo certain, that not a ſingle petition was preſented againſt it, and not a ſingle diviſion appears in the journals of either houſe. Striking proofs, if any were ſtill wanting, to ſhew the general opinion in favour of its neceſſity.

The diſpatch with which it was carried through both houſes, affords additional evidence, that it ſcarcely met with any reſiſtance. The bill was ordered to be brought in on the 20th of May, read the 24th, a ſecond time on the 25th, and committed to the whole houſe, ordered to be reported, with amendments, on the 26th, reported on the 27th, all amendments but one agreed to, and the bill ordered to be engroſſed; paſſed on the 1ſt of June, and Mr Pelham ordered to carry it to the Lords. It was read the firſt time on the ſame day; the ſecond time on the 2d, after a debate, carried in the affirmative; the third time on the 6th, returned to the Commons on the 8th without any amendments, and received the royal aſſent on the 21ſt.

It is moſt probable, that Lord Cheſterfield alone ſpoke againſt the bill, and that his ſpeech, ſo deſervedly admired, has been repeated by ſubſequent writers who copy each other, until a violent oppoſition to the meaſure has been ſuppoſed, which never exiſted.

TOPOGRAPHY AND NATURAL HISTORY OF SCOTLAND.

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COUNTY OF INVERNESS.

THE county of Inverneſs, is one of the moſt extenſive in Scotland; its greateſt length from E. to W. is, about 80 miles, and its greateſt breadth from N. to S. about 50. On the eaſt it is bounded by the ſhires of Nairn and Moray; on the ſouth by Perth ſhire; on the weſt by the weſtern ſea and Iſles; on the north by Roſs ſhire, and part of the Moray frith. Several of the Hebrides are annexed to it; a ſmall inſulated diſtrict, between the ſhires of Banff and Moray, is alſo politically attached to this county. The ſouthern, bordering on Perth ſhire, is the higheſt diſtrict in Scotland; towards the weſt, Ben-Nevis raiſes his cloud-capt head 4370 feet above the level of the ſea, and is generally allowed to be the higheſt mountain in Scotland. Towards the ſhores of the Moray frith, ſome of the hills are upwards of 2000 feet above the ſea. Loch Neſs, Lochy, and Laggan are remarkable among the interior Lakes. The moſt noted of the rivers are, the Spey, Neſs, Lochy, Nairn, and the Glaſs; all which are ſtored with trouts and ſalmon. From the ſouth the river Fyres, deſcends towards Loch Neſs; over this river, there is built a ſtupenduous bridge, on two oppoſite rocks: the top of the arch is 100 feet above the level of the water; a little below the bridge is the celebrated fall of Fyres, where a great body of water darts, through a narrow gap, between two rocks, then falls over a precipice into the bottom of the chaſm, where the foam riſes and fills the air, like a great cloud of ſmoke. On the banks of the rivers and borders of the lakes, and in the vallies between the hills, are many fine tracts of level arable ground. On the confines of this county, there are large tracts of natural wood, evidently remains of much larger foreſts. The management of black cattle and ſheep, but eſpecially the former, forms the principal employment of the inhabitants of this county. The clans of the Fraſers, the Forbeſes, the Macintoſhes, and Mc Pherſons, are the principal inhabitants of Inverneſs-ſhire. They poſſeſs many elegant ſeats upon the Moray frith, and elſewhere throughout the county. The three Garriſons of Fort George, Fort Auguſtus, and Fort William form a chain of communication acroſs the iſland, from the Moray frith, to Loch Fine. Though the Earſe is the language of the county, in the town of Inverneſs and its neighbourhood, and alſo in the vicinity of the Forts, very good Engliſh is ſpoken. The inhabitants were indebted, for the introduction of the Engliſh and for ſeveral uſeful arts, to the ſoldiers under Oliver Cromwell, who were ſtationary here for a conſiderable time. Cullodden moor, famous for being the ſcene of battle in 1745, when the Pretender experienced a final overthrow, lies in this county. The diſtricts of Badenoch, Lochaber, the Iſle of Sky, and ſome ſmaller Iſlands, are comprehended under this ſhire. From the nature of the country, it alſo divides itſelf, into ſmaller diſtricts, or glens, as they are called, ſurrounded by mountains, ſuch as Glengary in the centre of the county, Glen Moriſon, Glen Elg, Glen Deſſary, Glen Lyon, and ſeveral others. Lochaber is, perhaps, the wildeſt diſtrict of Scotland. It is noted for its gallant Thane Bancho, on whoſe tragical hiſtory Shakeſpeare has founded the tragedy of Macbeth; and Glencoe, almoſt the only town of any conſequence here, is noted for the horrid maſſacre committed by King William's ſoldiers, when quartered in it. The military roads, in this county, made by the ſoldiers under General Wade, never fail to excite the aſtoniſhment, and gratitude of tra-

travellers; they are executed with the utmoſt induſtry and pains, over inacceſſible mountains, and through moſſes and moraſſes, which ſeem to baffle all ſkill, and labour. His object was to open a communication with the other parts of the country, ſo as to keep the Highlanders in ſubjection, by connecting the two Forts of Fort William, and Fort George; for which purpoſe he built another in the centre, which he called Fort Auguſtus, and which had the deſired effect. The want of coal, and indeed the great ſcarcity of fuel of every deſcription, is much felt in this county. Not far from the Ferry of Balachinleſs in Lochaber, there is a fine marble rock, of an aſhen grey colour, it is beautifully ſpeckled throughout with grains of pirytes. It is alſo intermixed with lead, which is rich in ſilver. About three miles ſouth of Fort William, in the bed of the river, there is a very ſingular vein of marble, conſiſting of a black ground, with a beautiful white flowering like needle work, or rather reſembling the froſting upon a window, which penetrates the whole maſs. In the ſmall iſland of Pabla, one of the iſlands adjoining to this county; there is an argillaceous rock on the ſhore, the pieces of which, when ſplit in two, exhibit the ſkeletons of fiſh. In the pariſh of Kinguſſie, a rich vein of ſilver, was, ſometime ago, attempted to be wrought, but without ſucceſs.

Near Inverneſs, and at Duſdarduil, a few miles from the fall of Fyres, there are to be ſeen, what are called vitrifyed Forts. The diviſions of this county, called pariſhes, are certainly by much the moſt extenſive in Scotland, eſpecially thoſe of the Iſlands, and the Highland diſtrict, many exceeding 20, 30, and ſome even upwards of 60 miles in extent. Upon the coaſt bordering with Nairn, we have

ARDERSIER, meaſuring about 2½ miles each way, and containing 1300 inhabitants. In general the ſoil is flat and ſandy, and rents at from 5s. to 30s. per acre.

PETTY, alſo extends along the Moray frith, about 8 miles, its breadth is 4, and the number of inhabitants 1520. The aſpect is agreeable; it is flat and level, with ſome riſings, having a good deal of planting, chiefly fir, interſperſed. The ſoil is ſandy, on a rich black mould. There is no kind of manufactures carried on here. The military road to Fort George, croſſes this pariſh.

INVERNESS, is 13 miles in length, and from 2 to 4 in breadth, and contains upwards of 10,000 inhabitants. The aſpect is varied, being partly mountainous and hilly, and partly flat. In general the ſoil is a light loam, or gravelly, producing all ſorts of grain. The diſtrict is dry and healthy. The hill which ſtrikes moſt, is one near the town, its height is only 250 feet above the bed of the river. On the ſummit of Craig Phartic, there is one of the moſt remarkable of what are called vitrified forts to be met with. What is remarkable, there are now no natural woods in this diſtrict. A number of gentlemen have however of late made very extenſive plantations. Loch Neſs is one of the moſt remarkable ſheets of water in Scotland: it is 24 miles long, and at a medium, 2 in breadth, and in ſome places, though ſounded with 500 fathoms, no bottom could be found. The mountain of Meal-Fourvouny elevates its conic top about 2 miles of perpendicular height above the level of the lake. Though between 57 and 58 degrees of North latitude, neither the waters of this lake nor thoſe of the river which iſſue from it, were ever known to freeze; on the contrary they will thaw a frozen body put into them, which is not an uncommon practice with the inhabitants; when taken up in a veſſel and expoſed to the proper degree of cold it readily freezes. This water has not, as far as we know, been ſubjected to a proper chemical analyſis. That it is a mineral,

mineral, is certain from its laxative qualities, There is a conſiderable ſalmon fiſhing in the river. Inverneſs is a royal burgh, finely ſeated on the river Neſs, over which there is a ſtone bridge of 7 arches of great antiquity; about the time of the Revolution the principal traffic conſiſted in corn and ſkins, the malting trade was early brought to great perfection here; now various ſorts of manufacture are eſtabliſhed, and an excellent harbour formed, to which belong 7 veſſels meaſuring from 400 to 500 tons each. Upon the whole Inverneſs may be conſidered as a pleaſant neat well built town, and very thriving; an academy has lately been eſtabliſhed here, which is likely to meet with proper encouragement and ſucceſs.

Dores, extends along the banks of Lochneſs 20 miles, its breadth is 4. The number of inhabitants is 1365. Where capable of cultivation, the ſoil is light and not unproductive, yielding good crops of bear and oats. The new mode of farming, is juſt beginning to be introduced here. Mr Fraſer of Gortuleg, has ſet the example, and has neither ſpared pains, nor expence in improving his eſtate; beſides ſhewing an example, he has given his tenants long leaſes, on liberal terms, without which indeed no improvements can go on. The ſouthern diſtrict, is very mountainous, amongſt which there are a number of Lochs, well ſtored with trout, and other freſh water fiſh. The Daniſh Fort, called Dunriachan, is ſuppoſed to have been one of a connected chain of Forts, reaching from Inverneſs to Fort William, which were erected at the time of the Daniſh incurſions.

Moy and Dalarossie, in the diſtrict of Badenoch, extend 30 miles in length and above 5 in breadth, and contains 1800 inhabitants; this is a mountainous, rugged, barren, and bleak diſtrict, the whole yielding only about 1000l. per annum: on the banks of the river Findhorn, ſome black oats, bear, and rye, are produced. There is a conſiderable quantity of natural wood grows here, chiefly birch and alder. The Laird of Mc Intoſh has made extenſive plantations of fir, in various parts; Loch Moy abounds with charr.

Alvie, lies alſo in the diſtrict of Badenoch, and extends from N. to S. 20 miles, its breadth is from 2 to 3, it contains 1110 inhabitants; it is hilly, and mountainous, and much expoſed to cold blaſts; the north termination of the Grampians extending to this quarter. On the banks of the river Spey, a little oats, rye, and barley grow; but the whole does not produce above 800l. of rent. It is worthy of notice, that in this great extent of country, there is no Surgeon, no Writer, no Baker, no Maſon, no Carpenter, no Butcher, and no Jail; enough for the purity, and ſimplicity of their manners. There is a remarkable artificial cave here, ſuppoſed to have been a hiding place, it is 60 feet long, 9 broad, and 7 feet in height. The united pariſhes of

Kingussie and Inch, alſo lie in Badenoch, and meaſure from W. to E. 17, and from N. to S. upwards of 20 miles. The number of inhabitants is nearly 2000, but here, as in the whole diſtrict of Badenoch, it is only the vallies that are inhabited; it is very mountainous, and is interſected by the river Spey. Loch Inch abounds in fine trouts, pike, and charr. Several veſtiges of Druidical temples, and of two Roman encampments, are ſhewn: Though it may be doubted, whether the Romans ever ventured ſo far north. Specimens of ſilver ore, are occaſionally found here.

Luggan, is in the diſtrict of Glenelg, and lies in the ſouthern extremity of the county; it is nearly 20 miles long, and as many broad, and contains 1500 inhabitants; though ſcarcely a tract of 3 miles can be ſaid to be inhabited. The noted river Spey takes its riſe in the mountains here, running

ning through the middle of the parish, and receiving a vast number of tributary streams from the circumjacent mountains. Besides black cattle and horses, about 20,000 sheep pasture here.

KILMANIVAIG, measures from N. to S. 60 and from E. to W. about 20 miles, and contains 2400 inhabitants. It is composed of lofty mountains, extensive glens, and rapid rivers, most of which empty themselves into the Lochy. In all this extent of country, little corn is raised. It supports about 60,000 sheep, 1500 black cattle, and 500 horses which are of a small size. This district, was occupied by the Cummings, who had a Castle at Inverlochy; no part of which now remains but some of the outer walls. Another remarkable piece of antiquity in this parish, is the famous parallel roads, an astonishing instance of human industry. They are in the east part of the parish, extending 7 or 8 miles on each side of the water of Roy. There are three of them, in general from 60 to 70 feet in breadth, running parallel to each other, and hemouring the windings of the mountain, about 180 feet asunder. The country people call them Fingalian roads, and attribute them to the days of that hero; others think they were formed by the Kings of Scotland, when the Castle of Inverlochy was a royal residence.

GLENELG. The parish of Glenelg is nearly 20 miles each way, the number of inhabitants 2750. It is formed into 3 districts by the intersection of two arms of the sea. In the Glenelg district, the soil is good, being partly a black loam and partly gravel. In the district of Knowdart, which borders on the sea, the soil is light; the district of Morror, is rocky and mountainous, only fit for pasture. The antient Barracks of Bernera, lie at the point of this district, and are the termination of the military road from Invernes.

KIRKHILL, is 8 miles in length, and from 1 to 3 in breadth, containing about 1570 inhabitants. It consists of a narrow strype about 4 miles long, inclining to the Moray frith, there it rises to a ridge of hills which divide it into 2 valleys. In the low parts the soil is a rich loam, in the high districts it is gravelly; it produces oats, barley, peafe, and some wheat; it is watered by the river Beaulie, in which there is good salmon and plenty of trout.

KILTARLITY, and CONVETH, two united parishes measure about 30 miles from N. E. to S. W. they are 6 broad at an average, and contain 2,500 inhabitants about one thirtieth part only is arable being on the whole mountainous and rocky. It is watered by the rivers Clafs and Beaulie, on the latter of which there is a remarkable fall called the Redlin, about 2 miles from the church. Improvements are going on with spirit in this district for which the inhabitants are indebted to the Honourable Alexander Frazer of Lovat, who has a residence at Beaufort in this parish; also to Frazer of Belladrum, and Frazer of Brufich.

The Isle of Sky, and the islands of Barry, and of North and South Uift, are also politically situated within this county, a particular description of all which, and of the other islands will be given afterwards.

COUNTY OF ARGYLE.

THIS county, together with Perthshire and the Western Isles, is supposed to have constituted the antient kingdom of the Scots; the rest of Caledonia was subject to the Picts, and Romans. This shire comprehends the districts of Kintyre, Knapdale, Argyle Proper, Cowal, and Lorn.

Kintyre is a peninsula which runs 30 miles out into the Irish sea. The chief town is Campbeitown, where there is a safe harbour for ships.

Knapdale is joined to Kintyre, on the

the north, by a narrow neck of land, over which the country people were in use to drag their boats, though near a mile, to avoid sailing round the Mull of Kintyre.

Lorn is the pleasantest, and most fruitful part of the county.

The Duke of Argyle is hereditary Sheriff, of this county. It is bounded on the south by the Irish sea, and the frith of Clyde; on the East by Perth shire; on the West by the Atlantic ocean; and on the North by Inverness shire. It extends from S. to N. between the Mull of Kintyre and the point of Ardnamurchan, where it joins the shire of Inverness, about 114 miles, and, in breadth, exclusive of the isles about 40.

In former ages, the whole of this west coast of Argyleshire was perpetually exposed to the descents and depredations of strangers. The Irish, from the south, and the Danes from the north, formed many small colonies, at a convenient distance from the sea; but the original inhabitants never allowed them to penetrate further. There are many monuments, of the remotest antiquity, which not only prove the martial spirit of our ancestors, but also, that they conducted operations with a method scarcely to be expected in these rude ages. For a tract of 150 miles, watch towers were erected in sight of each other. If an enemy landed, or if he was seen hovering in sight, in the course of two hours, the whole country was alarmed; and the inhabitants repaired to the shore, completely armed. The signal was to kindle a fire in each of these towers; and, as quick as lightening, all were illuminated, and all the country in motion. When any chief or hero distinguished himself in battle and fell, a monument was erected to his memory. This monument consisted of a stone set up perpendicularly upon the spot; and the length of it determined the estimation in which the hero was held by his countrymen. The heroes, celebrated by Ossian, were a militia established in Argyleshire, for the purpose of defending the country upon any sudden emergency. They also were the dernier resort in battle, because they were the best men that could be picked from the whole district. Their fame was so great, that the Irish were obliged to have recourse frequently to their assistance, to defend them from the northern nations. When we behold such evident marks of genius among a rude people, we naturally regret that it is not in our power to delineate the civil polity by which these times were regulated.

Of old, the chieftain was not so much considered the ruler as the father of his numerous clan. Every individual of these followers loved him with a degree of enthusiasm, which made them cheerfully undergo any fatigue or danger. Upon the other hand, it was his interest, it was his pride, and his chief glory, to requite such animated friendship to the utmost of his power. The rent paid him was chiefly consumed in feasts given at the habitations of his tenants. What he was to spend, and the time of his residence at each village, was known, and provided for accordingly. The men who provided these entertainments partook of them; they all lived friends together; and the departures of the chief and his retinue never failed to occasion regret. In more polished times, the cattle and corn consumed, at these feasts of hospitality, were ordered up to the landlord's habitation: what was friendship at the first became very oppressive in modern times. Till very lately, Campbell of Auchinbreck had a right to carry off the best cow he could find upon several properties, each Martinmas, by way of mart. The island of Islay paid 500 such cows yearly, and so did Kintyre, to the M'Donalds: the Crown now has converted these cows

at

at 20s. a head, and taken away this badge of ſlavery.

The inconveniencies attending this ſtate, ariſe from the petty quarrels between neighbouring clans: theſe took their riſe from a ſpirit of plunder and depredation, and from points of fanciful honour; and they ſeldom endured long at a time; the weakeſt party giving way, and keeping quiet until times and circumſtances made him a match for his antagoniſt. It is remarkable, that no conſiderable family was ever annihilated by theſe inteſtine broils; a proof, that they were not ſo deſtructive as, at this diſtance of time, we are apt to believe.

At the period now under review, the Scottiſh kings had no authority whatever in this part of the country; on the contrary, the M'Donalds of the Iſles aſſumed regal powers, and actually held parliaments, or meetings of a ſimilar nature, where they enacted laws. The diſpute between Baliol and Bruce changed this ſcene. The Bruces travelled through Argyleſhire in the courſe of their peregrinations. After they were eſtabliſhed upon the throne, this part of their dominions became an object. They brought the M'Donalds and other clans to ſome kind of ſubordination. At laſt, they built fortreſſes; and gave the command of them to military captains. From this time, in their different wars with the Engliſh, they had recourſe to the aſſiſtance of the Highlanders. It became neceſſary for the chieftains to lead their followers to the low country; and of courſe to contract debts.

From this æra, the condition of the middling ranks became worſe; for the chiefs found it neceſſary to lay on, in addition to their yearly revenue, in order to defray the expence incurred in attending the ſovereign. This innovation, in ſome meaſure, ſlackened the ancient friendſhip; and, in order to enforce obedience, it was neceſſary to have recourſe to penal laws. The king accordingly gratified his feudal barons in this reſpect; indeed he could not act otherwiſe; for theſe barons were always formidable to his throne.

The firſt dawn of kingly government produced gibbets upon almoſt every feudal eſtate. Without trial or jury, the proprietor hanged without mercy or remorſe. The evil became at laſt ſo flagrant, that a jury and bailiff or ſheriff was introduced: but it did not cure the miſchief; for this law-officer was frequently gratified for the blood he ſpared; and, if a culprit was poor, he was thought a very proper ſubject for the gallows. In ſhort, this deſpotic ſyſtem was not effectually reformed until the year 1748, when theſe abominable juriſdictions were totally aboliſhed. The effect of this reformation was aſtoniſhing. No ſooner were men emancipated from their fetters than they began to improve their properties. Within theſe 50 years, the face and condition of this county has undergone the happieſt change, as appears by a variety of uſeful improvements.

This county like the other highland diſtricts affords many wild romantic and ſublime proſpects. Hills, rocks, and huge mountains riſe upon each other, in a ſtupendous and dreadful diſorder; often bare, bleak, and barren. The valley of Glenco is tremendous and awful; the coaſt is rocky, but indented with bays and inlets that afford good harbours for ſhipping. This county is well watered by rivers, brooks, and lochs which abound with fiſh. The vale and flat parts are cultivated for corn, the mountains feed great quantities of black cattle; the woods, of which there is a conſiderable number, afford ſhelter to deer, and all ſort of game uſual in the country, while much wealth is got from its bowels from lead, copper, and other mines. Loch Fine an arm of the ſea is famous for herrings. Lochow is a beautiful freſh water lake, 24 miles long and

a broad

1 broad, in which are a great number of small islands, on two of which castles are built. When the projected canal shall be completed, Mr Knox affirms that the county of Argyle will become one of the most valuable prizes in the British empire, washed on both sides by the sea, deeply indented by navigable lakes and bays, having an easy communication with the fishing grounds on the north highlands, with Glasgow and the trading towns on the Clyde, with Ireland, Wales, Whitehaven, Liverpool, Bristol, and other marts on the west coast of England we may easily conceive (says he) that the period is at no great distance when Argyle shire will become a great commercial county. There are two Royal Burghs in this county Campbeltown and Inverary; the latter is the head town of the county, pleasantly situated and well built; some manufactures of linens and woolens are carried on in it, and considerable benefit occurs from the fishing of Loch Fine. The Duke of Argyle's elegant residence in this neighbourhood is also of no small advantage to it. Campbeltown stands on the southern extremity of the peninsula of Kintyre, and contains about 5,000 inhabitants, who are supported chiefly by the herring fishery. Oban a fishing village, lately erected on the west coast is in a thriving state. The clan Campbell, of which the Duke of Argyle is chief, are the principal inhabitants, the climate, from being exposed to the western ocean, is moist and damp.

Kilmalie lies partly in Inverness shire, it is of a very irregular form, being intersected by many arms of the sea. In a strait line it measures 60 miles, and about 30 from N. E. to S. W. in breadth; the number of inhabitants is upwards of 4000. The greatest part consists of high grounds, but these afford excellent pasture for sheep; there are also many vallies, of various extent and quality. It is watered by the rivers Lochy and Nevis, upon whose banks there is a good deal of arable ground. Snow seldom lies in this district above 24 hours. There is a fine salmon fishing on the Loch: the coast abounds in herrings, from July to November. The only fresh water Lake in this district, is Loch-Archaig 16 miles long and one broad. Here stands Ben Nevis, the highest mountain in Great Britain, being elevated 4370, or according to some, only 4283 feet above the level of the sea, the prospect from the top is very extensive, and never fails to expand the heart, and delight the spectator. Colonsay at the distance of 80 or 90 miles from it, can be seen in a clear day. A great part of this mountain is composed of porphyry; specimens of different colours, are got upon different parts of the hill, some equal to any that has ever been found any where. On this mountain, there is also red granite which according to Williams is the best, and most beautiful in the world: lately too, two different veins of lead ore have been discovered, about 300 yards from the bottom of the valley. A vein of the same kind, has been also discovered at Inverscaddle, the property of Mr Cameron of Fassfern. Near the farm houses of Ballacheilish, there is a marble rock, of a beautiful ashen grey colour, and of a fine uniform grain capable of receiving a fine polish. It is finely sprinkled throughout with bright specks of pyrites, and also of lead ore. The exports from this extensive district, are fish, particularly herrings, wool, sheep, horses, and black cattle. Fort William, adjoining to which is the village of Maryburgh, stands in this parish.

Glenorchy and Innishail, extend 24 miles in length, but the breadth is very unequal; they contain 1670 inhabitants. This large district, is exclusively mountainous and hilly, excepting the vale of Glenorchy, which is 3 miles long and ½ a mile broad,

broad, and the ſmall plains of Auch and Auchalader. In many places there is a good deal of natural wood, particularly on the banks of Lochow; Cruachan is 3390 feet above the level of the ſea, and riſes in a gentle ſlope from Loch Tay. The military road from Stirling to Inverary, by Tyndrom, and part of the military road, from Tyndrom to Fort William, lie in this pariſh. From the Inn of Dalmaly, to the bridge of Aw, the road winds through woods and dells, towering mountains, and ſloping hills, as give an uncommon grandeur, and ſublimity to the ſcenes. Part too lies through a narrow defile, amidſt ſuch irregularities of nature, ſuch deep chaſms, and ſuch impending rocks, as indicate ſome vaſt convulſions of the earth to have happened at ſome remote period of time. At the eaſt end of Lochow, ſtands the fameus Caſtle of Kilchurn. In the iſland of Iriſhail, the remains of a ſmall Monaſtery with its Chapel, are ſtill to be ſeen. A lead mine has been wrought for many years, on the confines of this pariſh, and in ſeveral of the hills, there are appearances of lead ore. Among the rocks and mountains, cobalt, talc, aſbeſtus, and ſmall pieces of a beautiful jaſper, have been found. There is good limeſtone in various parts.

LOCHGOIL HEAD and KILMORICH This pariſh is 30 miles in length and from 2 to 6 in breadth and contains 1010 inhabitants. The ſurface of this diſtrict is in general very unequal, many of the hills riſe to a great height ſome are interſperſed with huge rocks, caverns, and frightful precipices, in others ſcarcely a rock is to be ſeen. The low lands and vallies form a delightful variety, after ſurveying extenſive wilds and barren rocks the eye is refreſhed by the appearance of ſmall cultivated ſpots of plain ground upon the coaſt and in the vallies, which bring back the pleaſing ideas of ſhelter, of induſtry, and of population. This diſtrict is alſo interſected by three arms of the ſea, Loch Goil, Loch-Long, and Loch Fine, where the ſcenery is much diverſifyed by natural woods. The minerals are moor ſtone, granite, and ſpar, in conſiderable variety, alſo limeſtone in ſeveral places. There is likeways a lead mine near the head of Loch Fine, but it was never wrought. The remains of three old caſtles ſtill ſtand proof againſt the ſtorms or tempeſts, viz. The Caſtles of Ardkinglas, of Carrick, and Dunderarah caſtle.

KILMADAN, is a plain or glen 12 miles long, and little more than a quarter of a mile broad, containing only 350 inhabitants. It is all a flat, bounded by hills covered with heath. The ſea coaſt affords good fiſhing. This pariſh had the honour of being the birth place, of Mr M'Laurin, Profeſſor of mathematics in the univerſity of Edinburgh, whoſe father was miniſter of the pariſh.

DUNOON is 24 meaſured miles in length and only 2, at an average, in breadth, containing 1680 inhabitants. The general appearance is agreeable: It is pretty flat on the coaſt, riſing gradually into hills ſcirted with wood. Dunoon Caſtle was once a royal one: and the biſhops of Argyle reſided in the village.

INVERCHAOLAIN, lies on the north ſides of Lochſtreven, an arm of the ſea, abounding in white fiſh of various kinds: it contains upwards of 500 inhabitants. The ſurface is for the moſt part rugged, a ridge of mountains riſes with a ſteep aſcent all along the coaſt. There is a remarkable change on the appearance of the mountains in this diſtrict: they were formerly covered with heath, and paſtured with black cattle, now they are paſtured with ſheep, and they have a fine green appearance, the heath being almoſt exſtirpated. The rental of this pariſh, is about 1500l. Sterling, one half of it, is the property of Mr Campbell of South hall.

KILBINAN, lying on the eaſt ſide of

of Loch Fine, is 15 miles long and from 3 to 6 broad, it contains 1204 inhabitants. The surface is rugged, and the shore rocky; none of the hills, however, rise to a great height. There are here several small fresh water lakes, which abound in trout. This district is also adorned and enriched, by a considerable quantity of fine natural wood, chiefly oak, birch, and ash. The principal proprietor is Mr Lamont of Lamont; the usual crops are, oats, barley, and potatoes.

(*To be continued.*)

STATISTICAL PAPER.

Translation of Economical and Political Questions, by M. Volney.

Sect. 1. *Physical State of a Country.*

Art. 1. *Geographical Situation.*

1. What is the latitude of the country?

2. ——————longitude?

3. What are its limits?

4. How many square miles does its surface contain?

Art. 2. *Climate, or the state of the Heavens.*

5. What is the state of the mercury in Reaumur's thermometer during each month?

6. ——————variation in the same day, at morning and noon?

7. What is the height of the quick-silver in the barometer during each month?

8. What are the greatest variations?

9. What are the prevailing winds during each month?

10. Are they general or variable?

11. Are there fixed periods for their duration and return?

12. Are there periodical land and sea winds? and what is their tract?

13. In what direction are the winds first felt—on the quarter whence they come, or in that to which they blow*?

14. What are the qualities of each wind? are they dry or rainy; warm or cold; violent or moderate?

15. In what month does most rain fall?

16. How many inches fall in a year?

17. Are there any fogs? and at what season?

18. Are there any dews? where and when, and at what time are they greatest?

19. Do the showers fall gently, or are they severe?

20. Are there any snows, and how long do they endure?

21. Are there any hail-storms, and at what season?

22. What winds bring snow and hail along with them?

23. Is there any thunder? when, and what wind reigns at that period

24. In what direction is it usually?

25. Are there any hurricanes? what wind prevails antecedently?

26. Any earthquakes? at what season? what are the presages? do they succeed rain?

27. Are there any tides? what height do they reach? what winds accompany them?

28. Are there any *phenomena* peculiar to the country?

29. Has the climate experienced any known changes? and what?

30. Has the sea risen or fallen? to what extent? and when?

Art. 3. *State of the Soil.*

31. Does the country consist of plains or mountains? and what is their elevation

* It has been remarked, that in land winds, (*les vents de terre*) the sails which are first filled are those nearest the shore, or in other words, nearest the winds. It would seem then that the same law ought to prevail in the sea breezes (*la brise de mer*) but it is otherwise. It would be desirable to know, what particular winds produce these different effects.

elevation above the level of the sea?

32. Is the land covered with trees and forests, or is it naked and uncloathed?

33. What are the marshes, lakes, and rivers?

34. Is it possible to calculate the number of square leagues in mountains, marshes, lakes, and rivers?

35. Are there any volcanoes? and are they burning or extinguished?

36. Are there any coal mines?

Art. 4. *Natural Products.*

37. What is the quality of the soil? is it argillaceous, calcareous, stoney, sandy, &c.?

38. What are the mines and metals?

39. What are the salts and salt-pits *(salines)*?

40. What is the disposition and inclination of the different strata found in wells and caverns?

41. What are the most common vegetables, trees, shrubs, plants, grains, &c.?

42. What are the most common animals, quadrupeds, birds, fishes, insects, and reptiles?

43. Which of these are peculiar to the country?

44. What are the weights and sizes of these, compared with ours?

Sect. 2. *Political State.*

Art. 1. *Population.*

45. What is the physical constitution of the inhabitants of the country? their usual height? are they fat or lean?

46. What complexion are they of? and what is the colour of their hair?

47. What is their food, and how much do they eat daily?

48. What is their beverage? are they given to intoxication?

49. What are their occupations? are they labourers, or vine-dressers, or shepherds, or farmers, or do they inhabit towns?

50. What are their accidental or habitual maladies?

51. What are their characteristic moral qualities? are they lively or dull, witty or phlegmatic, silent or garrulous?

52. What is the total mass of population?

53. What is that of the towns, compared with that of the country?

54 Do the inhabitants of the country live in villages, or are they dispersed in separate farms?

55. What is the state of the roads in summer and winter?

Art. 2. *Agriculture.*

N. B. The methods of agriculture being different, according to the different districts, the best way of becoming acequainted with this subject, is to analyze two or three villages of different kinds; for example, a village in a plane, another on a mountain; one where the vine is cultivated, and another where farming alone is practised. In each of these villages a farm should be completely analyzed.

56. In any given village, what may be the amount of the inhabitants, men, women, old men, and children?

57. What are their respective occupations?

58. What quantity of land is cultivated by the village?

59. What are their measures of length and capacity, compared with ours?

60. What is the price of necessaries, compared with that of labour?

61. Are they labourers, proprietors, or farmers? do they pay in money or kind?

62. How long do their leases run, and what are the principal clauses in them?

63. How many farms are there dependent on each village?

64. What is the proportion between the good and bad land?

65. Which are the best cultivated, large or small farms?

66. Do

66. Do the farms consist of home or outlying grounds?

67. Are the fields inclosed? and in what manner?

68. Are there any commons? and what do they produce?

69. Is there any right of passage through private property?

70. The number of labourers, the mode in which they are lodged, the quantity of land and animals?

71. What is the rotation of crops?

72. How many years in succession are the lands cultivated, and what fallow are they allowed?

73. What grains are sown yearly? and what quantity is allowed to an acre?

74. What are the periods of sowing and reaping?

75. What is the difference between the produce and the expences of every year?

76. What is the quantity of land in natural and artificial grasses?

77. What quantity of land is requisite for the feeding a cow, ox, mule, horse, sheep, &c.? How much does each consume in a day?

78. What are the animals used in agriculture? how are they harnessed?

79. What are the instruments of tillage?

80. What is the rent of the farm, compared with its estimated produce?

81. What is the interest of money?

82. How are the husbandmen fed? the amount per annum? and the value of the stock?

83. What is the weight of a fleece, and of the meat under it?

84. What profit is supposed to accrue from a sheep? and also from a ewe?

85. What kind of manure is used?

86. How does the family employ itself in the evenings? and what species of industry does it practice?

87. What is the difference observable between the manners and the improvement of a village where vines are cultivated, and one that produces corn? between a mountain village, and one seated in a plain?

88. In what manner is the vine cultivated?

89. What are the different kinds of wines? how are they kept? what the quality? the species of grape? the produce of an acre? the price of any given quantity?

90. What are the trees cultivated? olives, mulberries, elms, chesnut, &c.? What are the particular modes of rearing them? What is the average produce of each? and of an acre?

91. What are the other products of the country, either in cotton, indigo, coffee, sugar, tobacco, &c. and the method of cultivating them?

92. What new and useful article can be introduced?

Art. 3. *Industry.*

93. What are the arts most practised in the country?

94. Which of these are the most lucrative?

95. What is remarkable in each, on the score either of economy or effect?

96. What arts and manufactures are most cultivated?

97. Can any others be introduced? and which?

98. Are there any mines? of what kind? how are they worked, especially those of iron?

Art. 4. *Commerce.*

99. What are the articles imported and exported?

100. What is the balance of trade?

101. What kind of carriages are used for the *transit* of goods? are there any waggons? of what kind are they? how much do they carry?

102. What weight can a horse, mule, ass, or camel carry?

103. What is the rate of carriage?

104. Of what kind is the internal and external navigation?

105. What are the navigable rivers? are there any canals? can any be cut?

106. What is the ſtate of the coaſt in general? is it high or low? does the ſea encroach on, or leave it?

107. What are the ports, havens, and bays?

108. Is the exportation of grain permitted or denied?

109. What is the intereſt of money among commercial men?

Art. 5. *Government and Adminiſtration.*

110. What is the form of the government?

111. What is the diſtribution of powers, adminiſtrative, civil, and judicial?

112. What are the impoſts?

113. How are they laid on, aſſeſſed, and received?

114. What is the expence of the receipt?

115. What is the proportion between the taxes and the revenue of the contributors?

116. What is the amount of the impoſts of a village, in compariſon with its revenue?

117. Is there a clear and preciſe code of civil laws, or only of cuſtoms and uſages?

118. Are there many law-ſuits?

119. What is the principal cauſe of contention in the towns and country?

120. How is the right of property verified? are the title-deeds in the vernacular tongue, and are they eaſily read?

121. Are there many lawyers?

122. Do the ſuitors plead in perſon?

123. By whom are the judges nominated and paid? are they appointed for life?

124. What is the order obſerved in reſpect to ſucceſſions and inheritances?

125. Is the claim of primogeniture allowed? are there any ſubſtitutions and teſtaments?

126. Do the children all inherit alike any kind of property whatever? what is the reſult in the country?

127. Is there any property in *mortmain*; any legacies left to the church; any foundations?

128. What authority do the parents exerciſe over their children? and huſbands over their wives?

129. Are the women very luxurious? in what does their luxury conſiſt?

130. What is the education beſtowed on the children? what books do they learn?

131. Are there any printing-offices, newſpapers, libraries?

132. Do the citizens aſſemble for converſation and reading?

133. Is there a great circulation of perſons and commodities in the country?

134. Are there any poſt-houſes and poſt-horſes?

135. What, in ſhort, are the eſtabliſhments, no matter of what kind, peculiar to the country, which merit obſervation on account of their utility?

AN APOLOGY FOR BATCHELORS.

Sir,

As I am conſcious that it requires great courage to encounter, and great ability to diſpel the prejudices of mankind, I have heſitated long in ſending you a letter upon the ſubject I am now about to handle, nor am I ſure, whether, after all my caution, I have not choſen the very worſt poſſible time for an addreſs of the kind; but, as the proverb ſays, truth muſt be ſpoken one day or other, and if I go on neglecting opportunity after opportunity, I may perhaps drop off in the midſt of my reſolutions.

I have ſeen in your Magazine, many very able defences of the fair ſex, particularly of that ſpecies of them who are, by the indifference and bad taſte of mankind, advancing far in life

life without the advantage of a helpmate, or the opportunity of changing their names. I subscribe to the good intentions, with which all such vindications are written, and I hope they have often produced the desired effect, or, at least, have procured respect, if not husbands. But, Sir, as many gentlemen appear to have a vast quantity of commiseration on hand, the whole of which the fair sex cannot surely demand, I could wish they would bestow a small part of the surplus upon that class of our sex, who are called *Batchelors*. It is generally supposed that the state of a batchelor is a voluntary act, and that they are therefore accountable for all that may happen, or, at least, have no reason to complain. Were I completely at leisure, I think I could go nigh to prove that marriage is in general as little at the option of one sex, as of the other, unless people mean by marriage the mere union of two human beings, without a single sentiment in common. But this is not my present business.

Certain it is, there is no class of men upon whom more burdens are thrown, and more reproaches, and from whom more unreasonable things are expected, than batchelors, particularly if they happen to be either handsome or rich, or both, which is a dreadful state indeed. They have to encounter with such armies of charms, such legions of temptations, and such myriads of, I was going to say, angels, that it would require more than mortal strength to prevent mischievous consequences. On the other hand, there are many who will scarcely allow that a batchelor is an animal fit to be trusted with its own concerns. If he builds a house with the skill of a Wyat, and fits it with furniture equal to the eloquent panegyrics of a Christie, he dare not sit down in it, until he has consulted every lady of his acquaintance, and after all, is sure to be told, that 'all this is nothing without a wife.' He will be asked by every acquaintance who visits him, what '*he* has to do with a house, who has no wife? Nay, I have known the painting of a couple of window shutters, or the washing of the wainscot be set down as an infallible mark, that the owner has seen the folly of living single.

It is in vain that a batchelor has laid up a store of good sense, and experience in the affairs of human life, by observation and reading. He still is considered as very little removed from a fool. If he pretends to open his mouth on family affairs, what he says is sure to be answered by that infallible argument, 'He has no wife:' this is a complete refutation of all he can say, and the wisdom of Solomon would long ago have sunk before it, had not he happened to have a more than common proportion of wives. If he is an advocate for expensive pleasure, he is told that he would think otherwise if he had a wife and five or six children; and if he preaches up œconomy, the people stare, and some one of the *initiated* breaks out with a 'Good God! what has a batchelor to do with his money?'

During the present war, they have been the continual butt of every persecutor. If the minister wants money, he is told, 'Why do you not tax batchelors? And if armies are to be raised, who so fit to serve as batchelors, because, if they are knocked on the head, it does not signify much. They have no wives and children to cry after them. During the present preparations to repel our vapouring and arrogant foe, there is more than usual demand for batchelors, that the married men may stay at home and mind their wives. And I verily believe, if there were a batchelor, in the quarter I live in, found without arms, and not belonging to any of the associated companies, he would be instantly hanged up as an example to all his brethren.

Per-

Perhaps, Sir, you may ſuſpect by this time that one of this unhappy fraternity has now the honour to addreſs you, and perhaps you are not wide of the mark in your conjecture; but I muſt aſſure you that it is not our ſufferings during war, which have induced me to complain. In the piping times of peace to which I look forward, becauſe I remember what they were, I am pretty confident we ſhall not be much better treated. For my part I have ſuffered ſo much, that I am abſolutely forced into retirement to avoid continual mortifications, from my fair and ſatirical friends. If I preſume to offer my opinion on a marriage that has taken place, I am told, 'O! Mr — you ought to ſay nothing, you will never go that way.' And if, on a ſimilar occaſion, I am quite ſilent, they conclude that the ſubject is too diſagreeable for me to enter upon. If I offer to accompany a pair of young ladies in a walk, they are cautioned to beware of me, for I am a ſingle man; and if I decline a propoſal of the kind, I am told I might behave with a little more manners, and not refuſe even to *walk* with a lady.

But my greateſt inſults are in the company of your very happy couples, your moſt affectionate of fathers, and moſt *tendereſt* of all mothers. Here indeed, I am obliged to leave my five ſenſes at the door, as well as my hat and ſtick, and for the ſame reaſon, becauſe they can be of no uſe to me in the parlour. Be the company what they will, every one takes precedence of me, becauſe I am a batchelor, if the hour of dinner is altered, no notice is ſent to me, becauſe batchelors can dine at any hour; I am always helped the laſt; and if any lady condeſcends to drink a glaſs of wine with me, I am ſure to be told, it is an act of pure compaſſion. If I expreſs a fondneſs for the children, I am ſure to fall into awkward ſcrapes, for batchelors are ſo unhandy about children; and if I ſeem not in raptures with their ſpilling beer and wine on my beſt clothes, the wonder is how any perſon can diſlike the ſweet innocents! It was but the other day I prevented a child from falling out of the window, and my thanks were, that I could not be ſuppoſed to know much about children, for Jacky could not have fallen out. I have a thouſand times ſat in agonies to ſee children playing with a fork, or ſome ſuch dangerous weapon; but once, when I removed a thing of this kind out of the child's way, I was told that I had forgot what I was when young myſelf, and immediately a penknife was given to the poor dear baby. What unfeeling brutes are we batchelors.

I need ſcarcely tell you that there is a proverb, which effectually bars us from meddling in the government of other people's wives. Batchelor's wives are ſuppoſed to be a claſs of beings which the world never ſaw, and never ought to ſee, and therefore are univerſally cried down. It is my misfortune, however, to be frequently conſulted on caſes of this kind. Twice have I been examined in *crim. con.* trials, and although our worthy Lord Chief Juſtice did not think proper to ſet aſide my evidence, ſome of the oppoſite party complained of the folly of allowing a batchelor to be witneſs on ſuch an occaſion, 'for what do batchelors know of the matter?' If a ſchool is wanted for little maſter, my opinion is as regularly aſked as if it were worth accepting, and merely for the purpoſe of inducing me to ſay ſomething that may ſhow how ignorant I am of family affairs. In my houſekeeping, I am the continual butt of ridicule. Although I provide the beſt dinners in the world from the tavern, and add an expenſive deſert, and expenſive wines, all that is ſaid is, 'It is very well for a batchelor's dinner.' Or, what is ſtill more provoking, if I add another courſe, and

try

try to make the entertainment look as matrimonial as poſſible, I am told, that when I marry, I ſhall know better than to ſpend ſo much money in treating folks.

In ſhort, Sir, do what we can, we batchelors never have the good fortune to pleaſe. Like Cain, a mark is ſet upon us, and every man thinks that he has a right to inſult us. If my rooms appear neat and orderly, 'ay! that is ſo like a formal batchelor;' and if I am ſurpriſed by a viſit, while cleaning and repairs are going on, 'So! if you had but a wife now, we ſhould ſee none of this naſty litter.'

I am Sir, with great reſpect,

A BATCHELOR.

P. S. It may be neceſſary to add, that no part of this letter has any relation whatever to *old* batchelors, as they are a claſs of perſons who are by all the laws of humanity entitled to the utmoſt compaſſion, for who would not pity a fellow-creature in ſo deplorable a ſituation, as that the cure would be worſe, or to ſay the leaſt, as bad as the diſeaſe?

ACCOUNT OF A VISIT TO THE CELEBRATED LAVATER,

AND THE PRESENT RELIGION IN FRANCE.

WE ſtaid long enough at Zuric to viſit its firſt literary ornament Lavater. It being known that he is willing to receive ſtrangers, no traveller of any lettered curioſity paſſes through the town, without paying him the homage of a viſit.

He received us in his library, which was hung thick with portraits and engravings of which he has a conſiderable collection, forming a complete ſtudy of the ever varying expreſſion of the human face divine. Some very wiſe men, who admit of no ſcope to that faculty of the mind called imagination, and are for ever bringing every theory to the ſquare, and the compaſs, conſider his ſyſtem of phyſiognomy as the fantaſtic viſion of a heated brain! but though it may be difficult, it is ſurely ingenious and intereſting to attempt reducing to rules a ſcience, which ſeems to be founded in nature. It is ſurely curious to analyſe what it is ſo eaſy to feel, the charm of that expreſſion, which is the emanation of moral qualities; that undefinable grace which is not beauty, but ſomething more; without which its enchantments loſe their power of faſcination, and which can ſhed an animated glow, a ſpark of divinity over the features of deformity:

'Mind, mind alone, bear witneſs earth, and heaven,
The living fountain in itſelf contains
Of beauteous and ſublime.'

Lavater is a venerable looking old man, with a ſharp long face, high features, and a wrinkled brow; he is tall, thin, and intereſting in his figure; when ſerious he has a look of melancholy, almoſt of inquietude; but when he ſmiles, his countenance becomes lighted up with an expreſſion of ſweetneſs and intelligence.

There is a ſimple eloquence in his converſation, an effuſion of the heart extremely attractive: He ſpeaks French with ſome difficulty, and whenever he is at a loſs for an expreſſion has recourſe to German, which I in vain begged a Swiſs gentleman, who was of our party, to tranſlate for me: he told me that for the moſt part the German words Lavater employed were compound epithets of his own framing, which had compound energy as he uſed them, but which would be quite vapid and ſpiritleſs in tranſlation.

The great rule of moral conduct, Lavater ſaid, in his opinion, was, next to God, to reſpect time. Time, he conſidered as the moſt valuable of human treaſures, and any waſte of it as in the higheſt degree immoral. He

riſes

riſes every morning at the hour of five; and though it would be agreeable to him to breakfaſt immediately after riſing, makes it an invariable rule to earn that repaſt by ſome previous labour; ſo that if by accident the reſt of the day is ſpent to no uſeful purpoſe, ſome portion of it may at leaſt be ſecured beyond the interruptions of chance.

Lavater gave us a moſt pleaſing account of morals in Zuric. He had been a preacher of the goſpel, he ſaid, in that town thirty years; and ſo incapable were the citizens of any ſpecies of corruption, that he ſhould have rendered himſelf ridiculous had he ever, during that long period, preached a ſermon againſt it, ſince it was a vice unknown. 'At what a diſtance,' thought I, 'I am arrived from London and Paris.'

When we took our leave of Lavater, he begged we would write our names and place of abode in a book, which he appropriates to the uſe of inſcribing the long liſt of his foreign viſitors. An hour after my return from his houſe he came to pay me a viſit, which I was taught to conſider as an unuſual compliment, ſince it is his general rule not to return the viſits of ſtrangers. Religion was the theme of his diſcourſe, and he talked of its pleaſures, its conſolations, and its hopes, with a ſolemn ſort of enthuſiaſtic fervour, which ſhewed how much his heart was intereſted in the ſubject, and how warmly his ſenſibility was awake to devotional feelings. Although his zeal was not without knowledge, yet it was ſomething difficult to diſcover what was his ſyſtem of belief: whether he was of Paul or Apollos, a follower of Calvin according to the eſtabliſhed creed of the Swiſs church, or whether he was not in ſome ſort the framer of a new doctrine himſelf.

One of my fellow-travellers, who was anxious to wreſt from the venerable paſtor his confeſſion of faith, brought in review before him the various opinions of the fathers, orthodox and heretic; from Juſtin Martyr and Origin, down to the biſhop of St David's and Dr Prieſtley. But Lavater did not appear to have made polemics his ſtudy; he ſeemed to think right and wrong, in hiſtorical fact, of far leſs importance than right and wrong in religious ſentiment; and above all, in human action. There was more of feeling than of logic in his concluſions; and he appeared to have taken leſs pains to examine religion, than to apply its precepts to the regulation of thoſe frailties and paſſions of the human heart, the traces marked with ſuch admirable accuracy in the character and expreſſion of outward forms. For myſelf, I own the ſolemn, meek, affectionate expreſſion of Lavater's pious ſentiments, were peculiarly ſoothing to my feelings, after having been ſo long ſtunned with the cavils of French Philoſophers, or rather the impertinent comments of their diſciples, who are ſo proud of their ſcepticiſm, that they are for ever obtruding it in converſation. The number of thoſe diſciples is augmented ſince the revolution, which has ſpread far and wide the writings of Rouſſeau and Voltaire; and every Frenchman, after having read thoſe authors, though he may neither have taſte enough to admire the charms of their genius, or virtue to feel the philanthropy of their ſentiments, has, at leaſt, acquired ſufficient knowledge to aſſume the appellation of philoſopher, and prove his claim to that title by enliſting himſelf under the banner of infidelity, without knowing the uſe of his arms.

This irreverence for religion, however, which Mr Burke conſidered as one of the primary cauſes of the French revolution, is not, as heretofore, the *ton* among perſons of former rank and faſhion; infidelity has been in diſgrace with that claſs, ever ſince it was profaned by the vulgar Jacobin to-

touch; and the only diſtinguiſhed trophies that ſyſtem can now boaſt, are a few Anti-Newtonian flights with reſpect to final cauſes, from aſtronomic infidels. The ariſtocracy were no ſooner convinced that the Catholic eſtabliſhment, and above all, the non-juring prieſts were their beſt auxiliaries, than all the elegant women of Paris became immediately devotées, and nothing was heard of in faſhionable ſaloons, but profeſſions of attachment and reſpect *pour la religion de nos peres*; by which it was well underſtood that 'more was meant than met the ear,' and that theſe ſentiments included the government, as well as the creed of their fathers.

The great director of the conſciences of theſe fair converts, dreſt *à la Pſyche*, was Monſ. de la Harpe, a literary man of conſiderable infidel reputation under the old regime; the diſciple and friend of Voltaire, d'Alembert, Diderot, and other eminent Encyclypodiſts, and in ſome ſort a leader of the ſect after their deceaſe, or, according to their own creed, after their annihilation. The Gamaliel of Monſ. la Harpe, was Madame C—— T——; it was at her feet, in the gloom of a priſon, during the terrific tyranny of the Jacobins, that this philoſopher was brought to the knowledge and belief of Chriſtianity. I have before obſerved, that the nobleſt examples of fortitude and reſignation, under ſufferings, were, during volutionary government, diſplayed by women. It was, no doubt, in the calmneſs and imperturbability of Madame C—— M——'s mind, under the certain expectation of the ſcaffold, that Monſ. la Harpe was firſt led to admire the effects of a perſuaſion, which her eloquence and his own conviction made him afterwards adopt; and of which he became, in defiance of all his former opinions, the zealous and faſhionable advocate.

The cruel perſecution which the Catholic religion had ſuſtained from the intolerent Jacobins, had produced the uſual effect of perſecution, that of rekindling the pious zeal of a great portion of the people of France. They returned to the religion of their fathers, not from the ſame motives as thoſe which influenced the fine ladies and gentlemen of Paris, becauſe it was connected with regal government; but becauſe, wearied with revolutionary calamities, they ſtood in need of the ſoothing conſolations of devotion: and the churches became crowded places of reſort.

It was not, however, in thoſe religious temples that the illuſtrious convert to the Catholic faith, Monſ. La Harpe, became a preacher of its doctrines. Like the hero of Mr Greaves' novel, Monſ. La Harpe took courage to attack the devil in his ſtrongeſt holds. Being a perſon of high literary merit, he had been choſen to fill the rhetorical chair in the Lyceum. From that place, where, a few moons before, he had deſcanted on the glorious conqueſts of philoſophy over ſuperſtition, and of liberty and the rights of man over deſpotiſm and ſlavery; he now poured forth the recantation of his errors in ſo elegant and touching a ſtrain, that the neighbouring ſquare and ſtreets re-echoed the long and tumultuous applauſes of his fair auditory, for the majority were always ladies.

The lecturer, not ſatisfied with the victory gained over infidelity in this ſeat of ſcience, of which it had been ſo long in poſſeſſion, purſued that pernicious ſyſtem into another of its fortreſſes, the regions of pleaſure. Monſ. La Harpe, becoming a Catholic, was too ſingular an event not to attract general notice; and as Catholiciſm happened to be in faſhion, the proprietors of various places of amuſement thought a few lectures from Monſ. La Harpe, on 'the religion of our fathers,' would be no unprofitable ſpeculation. Accordingly, the ſplendid walks and fairy bowers of Idalia,

which, till then, had only re-echoed the founds of gayety and pleasure, now refounded with the vehement imprecations of La Harp against that vile revolutionary philosophy of the Rights of Man, which had overthrown the religion of our fathers. Monf. La Harp continued to be the rage in Paris, till he was fucceeded by another fashionable novelty, which happened to be Abraham Effendi, the Turkish ambassador. Upon Abraham Effendi's arrival, the fashionable and butterfly-tribe forsook once more 'the religion of their fathers,' a fabric long since undermined, and now haftening to decay, after gilding for a moment its venerable ruins with their glittering wings.

But another fect was now arising, which threatened more formidable danger to the Roman Catholic religion than all the edicts of Jacobin ferocity. Some ferious and well-intentioned men, who were fenfible that the human mind, without religion, feels a void, which fomething better muft be found to fill up than the doctrine of atoms, or the worfhip of reafon, have become the founders of a new fyftem, which, fetting afide the dogmas of the Roman Catholic creed, connected, they affert, with ignorance and fuperftition, refts only on thofe points in which men of all religions are agreed, the moral government of the world by the Supreme Being, and and the immortality of the foul. This fect, diftinguifhed by the name of Theophilanthropifts, the friends of God and man, had formed various little focieties in Paris before their opinions were publicly known. The fimplicity of their worfhip, fomewhat refembling that of the Diffenters in England, gained the attention of a few lettered men, and the benevolence of their doctrines became the public theme of panegyric of a member of the then directory, La Revelliere Lepaux, who publifhed a pamphlet, the object of which was to raife thefe doctrines into repute, by fhewing the inconfiftency of the Roman Catholic religion with liberty. This pamphlet was anfwered by Gregoire, the learned and patriotic bifhop of Blois, with much warmth, as a calumny againft the nation: fince the great majority, he afferted, were both catholics and republicans, and the moft democratic governments in Europe, the fmaller cantons of Switzerland, were ftedfaft in that belief.

La Revellier Lepaux obtained the title of high-prieft of the new fect, which, thus raifed into notice, became the object of various calumnies. Some afferted it to be a neft of terrorifts, who, under the mafk of religion, and the liberty allowed to every kind of worfhip, met only to frame the means of bringing round again their late fyftem. Others were aflured that this fect was nothing but a band of atheifts and philofophers, who aflembled only to propogate principles which, difbelievingt hemfelves, they intended to make inftruments of rooting out the Catholic faith.

Atheifts and Jacobins perhaps mingle in thefe congregations; but the mafs appears to be compofed of people of decent characters and manners, who difcontented with their former creeds, have embraced this worfhip till they are provided with a better.

In their prayers they invoke the Supreme Being, as the author and governor of the univerfe; they fing hymns of grateful acknowledgement for his bounties, and fill up the hours of their worfhip, with a difcourfe on fome moral fubject, in which the obligations to maintain liberty, and keep inviolate the laws of the republic are never forgotten. The better informed among the Theophilanthropes are believers in Chriftianity, while others affect to talk with difdain of what they call the Chriftian fect; unwilling to admit, or probably ignorant that Chriftianity is the fole foundation on which refts their own fcanty fect.

This

This new religious ſociety has the ſupport of government in every way in which its influence can be directed, without infringing that impartiality in religious matters which the law requires. The modeſt chambers, in which the founders of this ſect firſt aſſembled, are now changed for the ſpacious churches, which can ſcarcely hold the crowds who reſort to their meetings. The hour of the myſterious adoration of the hoſt is no ſooner paſſed, than the aſſembly of the Theophilanthropes begin their ſimple rites; and as the places of both worſhips are in common, the worſhippers of both opinions often mingle together, and learn at leaſt the divine leſſon of toleration. How far the doctrines of this ſociety may contribute to add to the ſtock of virtue in France it is difficult to determine, but this is certain, that the greateſt revolutionary ſinners, the Jacobins, have laid aſide their worſhip of reaſon, and become the moſt ſtedfaſt adherents to this creed; and ſince the belief of immortality is the moſt powerful motive to virtue, he who is convinced of the exiſtence of the Supreme Being, and offers up once a-week his thankſgivings to the Giver of every good, for his loving kindneſs and tender mercies, will be leſs inclined to ſacrifice again at the altar of Moloch, and dye his hands in human blood.

The ſocieties celebrate their worſhip both on Sundays and Decades, in order to include the partizans of the old and new diviſions of time. Their increaſing numbers have compelled them to diſſeminate themſelves in various quarters of the town, and they are about to apply for the equal uſe of all the churches of Paris, including that of Notre Dame. The people diſtinguiſhing the two worſhips by the names of the maſs and morality; and the new convert, inſtead of going as formerly *à la meſſe*, tells you, if you meet him on the way, that he is going *à la morale*.

From Miſs Williams' Tour.

ACCOUNT OF THE FISHERY OF THE SWORD-FISH.

THE Sword-fiſh is taken by the ſailors of Meſſina, in two ways; that is, with the lance, and with the *palimadara*, a kind of net with very cloſe meſhes. This fiſhery begins about the middle of April, and continues till the middle of September. From the middle of April, to the end of June, it is carried on upon the coaſt of Calabria; and from the end of June, to the middle of September, on that of Sicily. The reaſon of this is, that, by the account of all the fiſhermen, the ſword-fiſh, from April to June, entering by the Faro, coaſts the ſhore of Calabria, without approaching that of Sicily; and paſſes the contrary way from the end of July to the middle of September. We know not whether it takes this contrary route for the ſake of food, or from any other cauſe; or whether it be the ſame fiſh which thus paſſes and repaſſes: it is only certain that it does not coaſt the ſhore of Sicily, but when it does to ſpawn, when the males may be ſeen ſwimming after the females, one of which is frequently accompanied by ſeveral males. At this time the fiſhermen, likewiſe, have the moſt favourable opportunity for taking a double booty; as, when the female is killed, the males will never leave her, and are conſequently eaſily taken.

It ſeems almoſt certain, that the ſword-fiſh propagate their ſpecies in the Sicilian ſeas, and alſo on the coaſt of Genoa. They are every year taken in the ſtrait of Meſſina, from November to the beginning of March, of the weight of from one pound to twelve, and at the latter end of autumn, and in winter, I have ſeen ſmall ſword-fiſh ſold at Genoa, which were taken in the neighbouring ſea.

It is true, that in the ſtrait of Meſ-

ſina, ſword-fiſh of ſo ſmall ſize were not formerly taken; not, I am perſuaded, becauſe they did not paſs the ſtrait, but becauſe the inſtruments for fiſhing, which have been in uſe of late years were not then invented: eſpecially the *palimadara*. This is a net eighty feet or more in length, and fifteen in breadth, made with ſtrong cords, and cloſe meſhes, ſo as to take fiſh of every ſize; whereas with the lance, which was formerly the only inſtrument employed in this fiſhery, the largeſt alone, which riſe to the ſurface, can be taken. And this probably is the reaſon why the quantity of large ſword-fiſh taken with the lance, has of late years diminiſhed; this premature fiſhery having deſtroyed prodigious numbers of theſe fiſh, and at the ſame time prevented their reproduction.

A ſimilar wanton and waſteful deſtruction of fiſh, I have noticed in other parts of the Mediterranean, and eſpecially near Portovenere, on the Genoeſe coaſt; where they fiſh with the *bilancelle*. By this name are called two veſſels with a large lateen ſail, placed oppoſite to each other at ſome diſtance, to which is faſtened by two large cables a net of prodigious extent, which reaches to the bottom of the ſea, and having very fine meſhes, confines within it fiſh of every ſize, when it is drawn along by the motion of the veſſels impelled by the wind; for without wind, his method of fiſhing cannot be attempted. When during the ſummer vacation in 1783, I employed myſelf in the vicinity of Portovenere, in making reſearches into the nature and properties of various marine animals, which are indigenous in that ſea, the reſult of which enquiries I afterward publiſhed in the Tranſactions of the *Societa Italiana*; I went with the veſſels employed in this mode of fiſhing ten or twelve times, it being particularly adapted to the object I had in view; and I obſerved that, beſide fiſhes of a large or middling ſize, an immenſe number of extremely ſmall ones were taken, which, being of no value, were again thrown into the ſea, but not till they were dead, and almoſt torn to pieces by the rubbing of the net; and I could not avoid reflecting on the ſerious injury done to every kind of fiſhery, by the deſtruction of ſuch prodigious quantities of fiſh before they arrived at maturity. It is true, I was told that there was a law at Genoa, which prohibits the uſe, or rather the abuſe, of the *bilancelle*. This, however, appears ſcarcely credible, when we ſee every year, in the ſummer time, three or four pair of theſe veſſels ſail out to ſea, in the gulph of Spezia to engage in this kind of fiſhing. The magiſtracy of the place, beſides, whoſe duty it is to prevent the ſailors from engaging in this injurious fiſhery, may be eaſily gained over to connive at it, for a ſum of money, eſpecially if the largeſt fiſh are every day ſent to them, to prevent the veſſels from ſinking by being overladen.

When I arrived at Meſſina, the *palimadara* was not made uſe of, and the fiſhery for the ſword-fiſh with the lance was nearly at an end. For the latter mode of fiſhing, the mariners make uſe of a kind of veſſel they call *luntre*, which is eighteen feet long by eight wide. The prow is wider than the ſtern, in order to give more room to the man who throws the lance. In the middle is fixed an upright pole, ſeventeen feet high, with ladders to go up to it, and a kind of round platform at the top, for one of the crew, who acts as ſentinel, to ſtand on. This platform is called *furiere*. Near the bottom this pole is croſſed at right angles by another, ten feet long, the extremities of which reach a foot and a half beyond the ſides. To the ends of this pole are faſtened two oars, each twenty feet long. Theſe oars are managed by two ſailors, while a third ſtands in the middle, holding the right oar in his right hand, and the left in his

his left; who acts as pilot, and directs the veſſel ſometimes to this ſide and ſometimes to the other. This part is performed by the ſame ſailor who from the *fariere*, or round top, firſt diſcovered the ſword fiſh, obſerved its courſe, and pointed it out to the rowers; for, beſide the two already mentioned, who row alternately, according to the impulſe or directions of the third, there are two others, who, with ſmaller oars, row continually at the ſtern, following the fiſh, which makes a thouſand turnings and windings, and ſeems to wiſh to play with the veſſel as it ſails. The lance uſed to ſtrike the fiſh, is made of the wood of the lime tree, which does not eaſily bend. It is full twelve feet long. The iron head affixed to it, the ſailors call *freccia*, is ſeven inches long, and has on each ſide two pieces of iron called ears, equally ſharp and cutting, but moveable. Theſe are united to the principal iron till the lance is thrown; when they fly open, make the wound larger, and fix the iron head more firmly in the body of the fiſh. The iron head is not faſtened immoveably to the wood, but fixed in ſuch a manner, that, when the ſtroke is made, it buries itſelf in the body of the fiſh, and is detached from the wood, but ſo that both the wood and the head remain faſtened to a rope, which is held firmly by one of the ſailors, while the wounded fiſh is dragged after the veſſel. This rope is of the thickneſs of the little finger, and 600 feet long.

This apparatus, however, is not ſufficient. When the ſword-fiſh coaſt the ſhore of Calabria, two other men are placed to watch on the rocks and cliffs, which riſe out of the ſea. A ſimilar practice is neceſſary when the fiſh come down the coaſt of Sicily; but there, as there are no rocks, theſe ſentinels take their ſtations on maſts, eighty feet high, erected in veſſels of the largeſt ſize, anchored near the ſhore, and about a ſtone's throw diſtant from each other.

The manner in which this fiſhery is conducted is as follows; when the two men who watch on the rocks or maſts of the veſſels, ſee the fiſh approaching, which, as they ſay, they perceive by the change of colour in the water, they ſignify it by ſhouts to the crew of the fiſhing veſſel, which immediately bears down and is directed by the ſhouts and ſignals of theſe men, till the man on the round top has diſcovered, and follows them with his eye. By his directions the veſſel is tacked to one ſide or the other, while the man who is to throw the lance ſtands ready in the prow, till they come up with the fiſh; when the other comes down from the round top, and placing himſelf between the long oars, guides the veſſel according to the ſignals or directions of the lancer, who, having found a favourable opportunity, ſtrikes the fiſh, ſometimes at the diſtance of ten feet, immediately lets go the rope he holds in his hand to give the fiſh ſcope to run. The men row with all their might, following the courſe of the wounded fiſh, till he grows faint, and is nearly dead, which they know by his coming up to the ſurface of the water. Then they approach him, drag him with an iron hook into the boat, and carry him to land.

Sometimes the fiſh, enraged by the wound he has received, turns upon the veſſel, and endeavours to pierce it with his ſword; and when the fiſh is of conſiderable ſize and ſtrength, the fiſhermen are obliged to be very careful of this, as ſeveral ſerious accidents have happened from ſuch attacks.

Sometimes the wounded fiſh eſcapes either becauſe the lance has not penetrated deep enough, or becauſe, the rope breaking, he has carried it away infixed in his body. When the wound is ſlight, it ſoon heals; many fiſh having been taken up with more than one lance; but if it be deep, he inevitably

ably dies, and becomes the prey either of other fiſh, or the firſt fiſherman who meets with him. The uſual weight of the ſword-fiſh, is from one hundred to two hundred pounds: but ſome have been taken which weighed three hundred.

From Anecdotes of the Two Sicilies.

NEW AND CURIOUS PARTICULARS RESPECTING THE CHINESE EMPIRE.

CONTINUED FROM PAGE 453.

THE next morning the party preſented themſelves ſo early at the hall of audience, that the governor was not yet arrived there. It was a large building, ſituate at the end of a paved court, ſurrounded by galleries. The hall was open entirely to the roof, which was ſupported by ſeveral rows of large wooden columns painted red, and highly varniſhed, as were all the beams and rafters. A prodigious number of lamps, or lanterns, of various ſhapes and ſizes were ſuſpended by ſilken cords from the croſs beams, and round the columns, decorated with taſſels, varying in form and colour.

Of the lanterns, ſome were compoſed of thin ſilk gauze, painted or wrought in needle-work, with figures of birds, inſects, flowers, or fruit, and ſtretched on neat frames of wood. Some were entirely made of horn; theſe were ſo thin and tranſparent, that they were taken at firſt for glaſs, a material to which, for this purpoſe, the horn is preferred by the Chineſe, as cheaper, lighter, leſs liable to accident, and, in caſe of accident, more eaſily repaired; many of them were about two feet in the diameter, and in the form of a cylinder, with the ends rounded off, and the edges meeting in the point to which the ſuſpending cords were tied; each lantern conſiſted of an uniform piece of horn, the joints, or ſeams, being rendered inviſible, by an art found out by the Chineſe; among whom the vaſt number of ſuch lanterns uſed in their dwelling houſes and temples, as well as on the occaſions of their feſtivals and proceſſions, have led to many trials for improving their conſtruction. The horns generally employed, are thoſe of ſheep and goats. The uſual method of managing them, according to the information obtained upon the ſpot, is to bend them by immerſion in boiling water, after which they are cut open and flattened; they then eaſily ſcale, or are ſeparated into two or three thin lamiuæ, or plates. In order that theſe plates ſhould be made to join, they are expoſed to the penetrating effect of ſteam, by which they are rendered almoſt perfectly ſoft. In this ſtate, the edges of the pieces to be joined are carefully ſcraped and ſtanted off, ſo as that the pieces over-lapping each other ſhall not, together, exceed the thickneſs of the plate in any other part. By applying the edges, thus prepared, immediately to each other, and preſſing them with pincers, they intimately adhere, and incorporating, form one ſubſtance, ſimilar in every reſpect to the other parts; and thus uniform pieces of horn may be prepared, to almoſt any extent. It is a contrivance little known elſewhere, however ſimple the proceſs appears to be; and perhaps ſome minute precautions are omitted in the general deſcription, which may be eſſential to its complete ſucceſs.

The hall of audience furniſhed alſo another object of curioſity, ſtriking at leaſt to ſtrangers. On ſeveral tables were placed in frames, filled with earth, dwarf pines, oaks, and orange trees, bearing fruit. None of them exceeded, in height, two feet. Some of thoſe dwarfs, bore all the marks of decay from age: and upon the ſurface of the ſoil were interſperſed ſmall heaps of ſtones, which, in proportion to the adjoining dwarfs, might

be termed rocks. Theſe were honeycombed and moſs-grown, as if untouched for ages, which ſerved to maintain the illuſion, and to give an antique appearance to the whole. This kind of ſtunted vegetation ſeemed to be much relifhed, by the curious in China; and ſpecimens of it were to be found in every conſiderable dwelling. To produce them formed a part of the gardener's ſkill, and was an art invented in that country. Beſide the mere merit of overcoming a difficulty, it had that of introducing vegetables into common apartments, from which, their natural ſize muſt otherwiſe have excluded them. According to the uſual courſe of nature, different vegetable productions attain their perfect ſtate in different periods, and after acquiring different dimenſions and paſſing through different ſtages of growth. Thus the cedar of Lebanon, for example, conſumes ſome years in forming a tall and woody trunk, with many horizontal branches, before it emits its colourleſs flowers, and ſmall cones, for the purpoſe of reproduction, which is the period of its perfection; while the hyſſop, capable, at moſt, of riſing a ſhort herbaceous ſtem, produces its flowers and ſeeds the ſeaſon after it is ſown. Some trees are reproduced, indeed from cuttings of young branches, without the neceſſity of ſowing any ſeed; but ſuch cutting, planted in the ground, muſt become trunks themſelves in the uſual period of their reſpective increaſe and after acquiring their ordinary ſize, emit new branches, before they become adult, or capable of fructification; but by the art of dwarfing, an an abſcinding branch committed to the earth, continues ſtill to fructify, as if it had been grafted upon a full grown tree, with its juices ripened for reproduction.

The general method of obtaining vegetable dwarfs is ſaid to be the following: a quantity of clay, or mould, is applied to the upper part of the trunk of a tree, from which a dwarf is intended to be taken, and cloſe to its diviſion into branches. The mold is to be confined to the ſpot by coarſe hempen, or cotten cloth, and to be carefully kept moiſt by water. In conſequence of this application, continued ſometimes above a twelvemonth, ſmall tender fibres, ſhoot down like roots from the wood into the mould. The part of the trunk emitting thoſe new fibres, together with the branch riſing immediately above it, is then to be carefully ſeparated from the reſt of the tree, and planted in new earth, in which the fibres become new roots, while the former branch is now the ſtem of the vegetable, thus transformed in ſome meaſure. This operation does not deſtroy or alter the productive faculty which thoſe parts enjoyed before their ſeparation from their parent root. That which, while a branch of the original tree, bore flowers and fruit, continues to produce the ſame, though no longer ſupported upon any ſtock. The terminal buds of ſuch branches of trees as are meant to become dwarfs, are torn off; which circumſtance prevents the further elongation of thoſe branches, and forces other buds and branchlets from the ſides. Theſe branchlets are bent by wires to whatever form the operator wiſhes: and when the appearance of age and decay is meant to be given to a dwarf tree, it is repeatedly ſmeared with treacle or molaſſes, which attracts multitudes of ants, who, in purſuit of thoſe ſweet-juices, attack the bark, and, by a gradual corroſion of it, produce the deſired effect. Theſe different proceſſes are ſometimes attempted to be kept ſecret by the gardeners, and they vary deſignedly in the mode of carrying them on; but the principle on which they are founded is ſufficiently apparent from what is related here; and the contrivance argues ingenuity and perſeverance, rather than the practice does true taſte, which conſiſts in

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aſſiſting nature in its moſt favourite works, not in counteracting its operations or diſtorting its productions.

The neceſſity of engaging pilots, to enable them to proceed in the unknown navigation of the Yellow Sea, introduces an account of this ſea, and of the difference between the Chineſe and European mode of navigation, and alſo of their reſpective compaſſes. 'Into this ſea,' ſays Sir George Staunton, 'are received the waters of the great Whang-ho, or Yallow river of China. The river wafts, in its long and circuitous courſe, ſuch vaſt quantities of yellowiſh mud, that it takes, from that circumſtance, and communicates to the adjoining ſea, the particular name by which they are both diſtinguiſhed. The Yellow ſea is bounded by China, Tartary, and the peninſula of Corea. It was no immaterial advantage derived from the embaſſy, that it furniſhed an opportunity of exploring, without riſk, ſo conſiderable a tract, under the guidance of thoſe who had frequently paſſed thro' it. Of the two pilots obtained for this purpoſe at Chu-ſan, one was received on board the Lion; the other was ſent to the Hindoſtan. Though forced upon this ſervice, they appeared ready to perform it, as well as they were able. When, indeed, an European pilot arrives upon the deck of a veſſel, on board of which his aſſiſtance is required, he takes at once the helm, and exerciſes his functions like a dictator among the Romans, while all other authority is ſuſpended, or exerted only to enforce obedience to his abſolute commands. But the Chineſe, in the preſent inſtance, were too much awed by the novelty of their ſituation, in the midſt of ſtrangers, to be forward in interfering. They were, however, attentive to the preparations made for the proſecution of the voyage, and to all the manœuvres of the ſhips. Each of them brought with him a ſmall marine compaſs; but they had neither charts, nor any inſtrument for aſcertaining latitudes. The local experience, it is true, of ſkilful pilots, is deemed ſufficient in regard to coaſts viſited by them frequently. It is not uncommon, however, on board Chineſe veſſels, to have maps or ſketches of their intended route, with the neighbouring headlands cut or engraved upon the back of empty gourds, the round form of which correſponds, in ſome ſort, to the figure of the earth. Such a ſimilitude may have ſometimes contributed to render theſe ſketches ſomewhat leſs erroneous; but the advantage is accidental; for neither the aſtronomers nor navigators of China have varied much from the firſt rude notions entertained among mankind that the whole earth was one flat ſurface; in the middle of which the Chineſe took for granted that their own empire was ſituated; thence emphatically ſtyled by them, *the empire of the middle*; all other countries ſurrounding it being in their eſtimation, comparatively ſmall, and lying toward the edge or margin of the earth; beyond which all muſt be a precipitate and dreadful void.

This ignorance of the earth's form precluded any attempt to aſcertain the latitude or longitude of the different parts of it by obſervations of the heavenly bodies, for the improvement of navigation. Even among other nations, where philoſophers had made diſcoveries of importance, they ſeldom were applied to uſeful purpoſes, until the great inventreſs of ſocial arts, neceſſity, had ſtimulated to extraordinary exertions. Notwithſtanding the ſcience of the Greeks, and the fertility as well as acuteneſs of their minds, they never proceeded to the length of aſcertaining, with the aſſiſtance of an inſtrument, the poſition of a ſhip at ſea; ſatisfied that they could, by the obſervation, in the day time, of ſome part of the coaſt of the Mediterranean, in which they generally ſailed, or of the many iſlands ſcattered through it, and, in the night time, of the ſtars, ob-

obtain such information as they wanted in that respect. The Chinese, indeed, enjoy a similar advantage, as their seas resemble the Mediterranean, by the narrowness of their limits, and the numerous islands with which every part of them is studded. It is to be observed, likewise, that the art of navigation, improved among Europeans, dates its origin nearly from the same period when their passions, or their wants, impelled them to undertake long voyages over the boundless ocean.

As to the compass, it is, among the Chinese, in universal use. With them the magnetic needle is seldom made to exceed an inch in length, and is less than a line in thickness. It is poised with great nicety, and is remarkably sensible; by which is meant, that it appears to move at the least change of position, toward the east or west of the box in which it is suspended; though in fact, the nature of the magnet, and the perfection of the machine containing it, consist in the needle's privation of all motion, or its continuing to point always steadily toward the same portion of the heavens, however rapidly may be whirled the compass box, or other objects surrounding it. This steadiness, in the Chinese compass, is accomplished by a particular contrivance, as observed by Mr Barrow. "A piece of thin copper is strapped round the centre of the needle. This copper is riveted by its edges to the upper part of a small hemispherical cup, of the same metal, turned downward. The cup so inverted, serves as a socket to receive a steel pivot rising from a cavity made into a round piece of light wood, or cork, which thus forms the compass box. The surfaces of the socket and pivot, intended to meet each other, are perfectly polished, to avoid, as much as possible, all friction. The cup has a proportionably broad margin, which, beside adding to its weight, tends from its horizontal position to keep the centre of gravity, in all situations of the compass, nearly in coincidence with the centre of suspension. The cavity, in which the needle is thus suspended, is in form circular, and is little more than sufficient to receive the needle, cup, and pivot. Over this cavity is placed a thin piece of transparent talc, which prevents the needle from being affected by any motion of the external air; but permits the apparent motion of the former to be easily observed. The small and short needle of the Chinese has a material advantage over those of the usual size in Europe, with regard to the inclination or dip toward the horizon; which, in the latter, requires that the extremity of the needle should be made so much heavier than the other, as will counteract the magnetic attraction. This being different in different parts of the world, the needle can only be accurately true at the place for which it had been constructed. But in short and light needles, suspended after the Chinese manner, the weight below the point of suspension is more than sufficient to overcome the magnetic power of the dip or inclination, in all situations of the globe; and therefore such needles will never deviate from their horizontal position."

Upon the upper surface of the box are drawn, several concentric lines or circles, according to the various sizes of the compass-box. This is seldom less than four inches in diameter. The circles are distinguished by different Chinese characters. Eight are marked on the first or innermost circle; four of which denote the cardinal points of east, west, north, and south; and four the bisecting intermediate points. The same eight characters also signify eight equal divisions of the natural day, or space during which the earth revolves upon its own axis, in pursuing its course round the sun, every such division being of three hours. The characters denoting those divisions are so placed as to point out

nearly the position of the sun at those different portions of the day, beginning at sunrise, of which the character means also the eastern portion of the heavens. With this first circle of eight divisions agrees the first compass, which is said to have appeared in Europe in the beginning of the fourteenth century; and which, by subsequent subdivisions, was improved into thirty-two points, as seamen became more expert and accurate in observation.

In another circle of the Chinese compass are twenty-four divisions, in each of which a character is inserted, which marks at the same time, a twenty-fourth portion of the heavens, and a twenty-fourth part of the natural day. According to this division, each point, or twenty fourth portion of the compass, comprehends an integral number of fifteen degrees out of three hundred and sixty, into which all circles of the celestial sphere have been agreed to be divided, probably since that early period when the number of days, in which the sun performed his apparent course, was supposed to be three hundred and sixty.

The remaining circles round the Chinese compass contain the characters of the cycle of sixty years, by which this nation regulates its chronology, and other characters expressive of their philosophical and mythological doctrines, to which they are so attached as to render this instrument as familiar to the people ashore, as it is at sea.

The nature and the cause of qualities of the magnet have, at all times, been subjects of contemplation among the Chinese. Their theory, in this instance, as in many others, is the reverse of that of European philosophers. It is obvious, that while the magnetic needle, suspended by its centre, points at one extremity to the north, it necessarily looks at the other, to the south; but each retains its own polarity; and if turned round by force, will resume, when left at liberty, its original station opposite its respective pole. Thus the power, which principally attracts the needle, may be supposed to reside toward either or both portions of the earth. In Europe it has been thought that the needle has its chief tendency to the north pole; but in China the south alone is considered as containing the attractive power. The Chinese name of the compass is *ting-nanching*, or needle pointing to the south; and a distinguishing mark is fixed on the magnet's southern pole, as in European compasses upon the northern one.

The Emperor Caung-shee, grandfather to the present reigning sovereign, who was in the habit of committing to paper his observations on a variety of subjects, and who, having encouraged learned missionaries at his court, had not been inattentive to their philosophical opinions, writes on this occasion, "I have heard Europeans say, that the needle obeys the north. In our oldest records it is said that it turns to the south; but as neither have explained the cause, I see little to be gained in adopting one opinion in preference to the other. The ancients, however, are first in date; and the farther I proceed, the more I am convinced of their knowledge of the operations and mechanism of nature. Moreover, as all action grows languid, and nearly is suspended towards the north, it is less likely that the virtue, which gives motion to the magnetic needle, should proceed from that quarter."

The Emperor Caung-shee was well aware, however, that the needle does not always point directly, either to the south or north; and that this declination is not the same in all countries, nor invariable in the same place; but the sphere of Chinese navigation is too limited to have afforded experience, or observation, for forming any system of laws supposed to govern the variation of the needle. Their knowledge

ledge of the general polarity of the magnet answers every purpose, in practice, to that nation; and their researches upon most subjects seem to have been directed chiefly, and to be too often circumscribed, by the immediate prospect of utility resulting from the continuance of every particular pursuit.

(*To be continued.*)

REVIEW OF NEW BOOKS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE SCOTS MAGAZINE.

SIR,

AS it does not seem to be part of your plan to review, regularly, Scottish publications yourself, you will oblige us, and we dare say it will be acceptable to your readers, by inserting the inclosed review of the BARONAGE OF SCOTLAND, which we have copied *verbatim* from the British Critic. We further request, that you will give a corner to the three Coats of arms herewith sent, that your readers may be better enabled to form a judgment of the plan of the Sequel of that Work.

We are, SIR,

Your humble Servants,

The Editors.

The Baronage of Scotland; containing an historical and genealogical Account of the Gentry of that Kingdom; collected from the public Records and Chartularies of the Country; the Records of private Families; and the Works of our best Historians. Illustrated with Engravings of the Coats of Arms. Vol. I. Folio. 1l. 11s. 6d. *Bell and Bradfute, &c. Edinburgh; Cadell and Davies, London.* 1798.

THE value of such a work will be differently estimated, according to the preconceived opinions of its different readers; while it will be entirely rejected as unworthy of perusal, by such as have filled their heads with the new and fantastical notions of the imprescriptible rights and equality of men. That mankind have in general the same powers of mind, and the same organs of body, though not all in the same degree of perfection, is doubtless as well known to the editors of the *Baronage of Scotland*, as to the most flaming partizan of the Jacobinical sect. But as long as men shall continue to employ their talents to very different purposes, inequalities of rank and of fortune must necessarily arise in every country, where merit is rewarded, and property protected; and the history of those families whose ancestors raised themselves, or were raised by their sovereigns, above the common level of their fellow citizens, tends in no small degree to stimulate honest industry, and to excite heroic exertion.

Nor is this the only useful tendency of such publications. In a country, which engrossed the greater part of the commerce of Europe, and among whose inhabitants luxury is very generally diffused, large fortunes are sometimes suddenly acquired; and though we do not implicitly receive what Dr Johnson certainly did not literally mean, that "there is *always* a *scoundrelism* about a *new* man," yet we think it undeniable, that the sudden acquisition of riches is too often the parent of insolence; and of insolence the more intolerable, that it is generally displayed towards merit obscured by poverty. To repress this spirit in the petulant upstart, nothing contributes so much as the honour which is attached to an ancient pedigree. The Commissary, who has grown rich by the plunder of his country, and occupies perhaps the estate on which he was formerly steward, while he treats with contemptuous kindness the curate of the parish, or the village surgeon, shrinks back towards his original station, in the presence of him, whose family has been established for two hundred years. This may be called prejudice, but it is a salutary prejudice; and if it be true, that

"Fate never wounds more deep the generous heart,
"Than when a blockhead's insult points the dart,"

no wise or good man would wish to

eradicate from the breaſt a ſentiment by which ſuch darts are forcibly repelled.

But are not thoſe, who inherit large eſtates from a long line of anceſtors, as contemptuous and inſolent to obſcure merit, as thoſe who have ſuddenly acquired their wealth by their own efforts or induſtry? Doubtleſs this ſometimes happens; but it certainly is not a general caſe. The man who inherits an eſtate, has not the balance of his mind deſtroyed by unexpected proſperity; he is in poſſeſſion of nothing but what he looked for from the years of his childhood; and if his education has been what it ought to have been, it muſt have ſtrongly impreſſed upon his mind, the duty of maintaining the honour of an ancient houſe, by a conduct at once eaſy, dignified, and generous. So true is it, as the Editors of this work obſerve, that "the propriety of preſerving the genealogies of families cannot be reaſonably queſtioned."

"The genius, the virtues, and the atchievements of eminent men, ought to be remembered; and even thoſe, who, though not prominent in public affairs, or engaged in purſuits intereſting to ſtrangers, had, in their private ſphere, demeaned themſelves with propriety, and ſupported the line of an antient family with reſpectability, ought not to be forgotten. The line of a family may fail, but ſuch a publication as the preſent will preſerve it in the recollection of poſterity."

It will be recollected, that in Scotland, there were two diſtinct claſſes of Barons, the *greater* and the *leſs*. The *greater* were the nobility, dignified with the title of Earls, &c. The *leſs* were the freeholders of landed eſtates, who, though their privileges and fortunes were not equal to thoſe of the nobles, were entitled as well as they to ſit and vote, perſonally, in the Scottiſh parliament; which, as moſt of our readers doubtleſs know, conſiſted of but one houſe or council. A commoner, or untitled Baron, ſometimes even preſided in that houſe, as ſpeaker or chancellor.

In the work, of which the firſt volume is now before us, it is propoſed to delineate the genealogies of the *ſmaller* Barons, or, in other words, of the Baronets and other freeholders of ancient deſcent; by tracing the line of their anceſtry, enumerating their intermarriages, mentioning their employments, whether civil or military, and recording the public atchievements which have been performed by the moſt eminent members of the different families. By much the greater part of this volume was long ago compiled and printed by Sir Robert Douglas, Baronet, who had, ſometime before, publiſhed a copious account of the great Barons or nobility of Scotland; but the completion of the work has been reſerved for men, who ſeem more capable of doing it juſtice than Sir Robert Douglas.

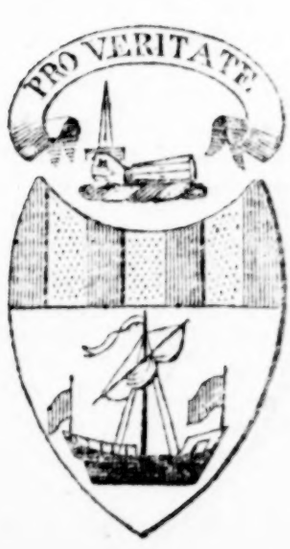
Without calling in queſtion the baronet's knowledge of the ancient hiſtory of his country, we may fairly affirm, that he had either been very indolent, or poſſeſſed no talents for arrangement; for in his part of the volume he ſeems to have ſent to the preſs, without method or order, the hiſtory of each family, juſt as the materials were furniſhed to his hand. Hence it is, that the accounts of the different families are ſo confuſedly intermixed, that he who wiſhes to trace any one of them through its various ramifications, muſt hunt for the particular branches through upwards of five hundred folio pages. Of this enormous defect, the preſent editors ſeem to be abundantly ſenſible; and having done every thing in their power to remedy it, by a copious and accurate index, they promiſe to adopt a more ſyſtematic arrangement in the ſubſequent volumes.

The arrangement which they ought to adopt, is indeed very obvious, and has doubtleſs been well digeſted by themſelves; yet as we wiſh ſucceſs to an undertaking, which, if judiciouſly executed, may certainly be of national utility, we ſhall take the liberty to offer a few hints to their conſideration, of which they may make what uſe they pleaſe.

In Scotland, as in every other country, where the feudal ſyſtem has been fully eſtabliſhed, the families of ancient deſcent are divided into clans. Of theſe clans each has a chief; but to aſcertain to whom the chieftainſhip belongs, is ſometimes a taſk of no little difficulty; and the hiſtorian who attempts it, is in danger, when there are competitors, of giving offence to more than one of his readers. So late as the year 1774, MacLeod, of Raaſay, was

almoſt

almoſt offended at Dr Johnſon, for having, in his *Journey to the Weſtern Iſlands*, ſaid that MacLeod of Dunvegan, was acknowledged as chief of the clan. This hazard the editors of the Baronage of Scotland muſt however be contented to run; otherwiſe it ſeems to us altogether impoſſible to give to their work a ſyſtematical arrangement. Having aſcertained, on the beſt evidence which they can procure, the family which has the juſteſt claim to the chieftainſhip over the other families of the ſame name, they ſhould begin with tracing that family from its origin down to the preſent day, barely mentioning, as they proceed in the order of deſcent, the various branches which have ſucceſſively ſprung from it. They will thus delineate, without confuſion, the pedigree of the chief family of the clan; and by proceeding from it through its various branches, beginning with the branch which ſprung from the parent ſtock at the moſt remote period, they will be able, in the compaſs of not many pages, to give a luminous view of the hiſtory of the whole clan. The clans themſelves ſhould be ranged according to their ſeniority, the eldeſt occupying the firſt place; and if the dulneſs of genealogical detail be occaſionally relieved by ſuch biographical anecdotes as they have publiſhed of the family of Hawthornden, a work may be publiſhed, on this plan, which ſhall be at once entertaining and inſtructive, and which will undoubtedly command a very extenſive ſale.



A Walk through Wales, in 1796. By the Reverend R. Warner of Bath, 8vo. 6s. *Dilly.*

AS a ſpecimen of this entertaining performance we ſhall give the

Character of the North Welſh.

WE have at length left North-Wales, a country which has afforded us the higheſt gratification. This pleaſure, however, ariſes as much from moral conſiderations as from natural objects, from the contemplation of the manners and virtues of the people, as of the magnificent ſcenery amid which they dwell. Of theſe I ſhall endeavour to give you a ſlight *ſketch*; being all, indeed, that our quick progreſs through the principality allows me to attempt.

On conſidering the character of the North-Walliuns, we find that little variation has taken place in it, during the laſt of 18 centuries; and if we allow for that poliſh which the progreſs of ſociety naturally produces on individuals, we ſhall ſee the preſent inhabitant of Merioneth and Caernarvonſhire, as well pourtrayed by Diodorus, Cæſar, Strabo, and Livy, as if they had taken the likeneſs in theſe days.

The modern, like the ancient Celt, is in perſon large and robuſt: his countenance ſincere and open, his ſkin and complexion fair and florid, his eyes blue, and hair of a yellowiſh tinge. As he thus nearly reſembles his great anceſtor in *perſon*, he is alſo equally like him in mind and diſpoſition. Openneſs and candour are prominent features in the Welſh character of the preſent day; they were full as ſtrikingly diſplayed by the ancient Celtic nations. Their hoſpitality you are enabled to judge of, from the examples of it which I have mentioned in the preceding letters; amongſt the ancients they were highly extolled for the ſame amiable quality. That quickneſs of feeling, ſo apparent in the Welſh, which frequently diſplays itſelf in fierce, but tranſient fits of paſſion, and as often produces quarrels and bloodſhed, perpetually embroiled the Celts in war and ſlaughter. National pride, a venial defect in the character of a people, ſince it ariſes only from the excels of laudable affections, is proverbial amongſt the inhabitants of the principality, and they ſeem to have it by hereditary deſcent from their Celtic forefathers, who thought more highly of themſelves, than the poliſhed nations around them conceived they had a right to do.

I have before obſerved, that a religious ſpirit prevails amongſt the lower orders of the Welſh, which produces a characteriſtic decency of manners in that deſcription of people. It is, however, much tinged with ſuperſtition, and the belief in ſpirits and apparitions is very general. The names of many mountains and rocks evince, that they are conſidered as the reſidences of ſubordinate intelligences; and this is accounted for, not ſo much, perhaps, from the credulity natural to ignorant people, as from the circumſtances of the *ſcenery* wherein they reſide, the gloom and deſolation of which, added to its being liable to ſingular and ſtriking variations in appearance, have a ſtrong tendency to affect the human mind (naturally timid) with ſuperſtitious fears and whimſical notions. Similar ſituations will produce ſimilar manners; and hence it happens that their brethren of the Scotch Highlands entertain the ſame opinions, in this reſpect, with the inhabitants of Wales. The ghoſts of the departed, and the ſpirits of the mountains, rocks, and winds, make a conſpicious figure in the North; and ſome of the ſublimeſt paſſages of Oſſian have their origin in theſe popular prejudices.

The Welſh females ſtill retain that beauty of face, which drew encomiums on their Celtic mothers, from the writers of antiquity. They are middle-ſized and well ſhaped, ſtrikingly modelled according to the taſte of Anacreon. Their eyes are dark and ſparkling, and their complexion and teeth fair and white. Though their perſons diſplay a proper degree of ſymmetry, yet they are obviouſly ſtouter than the women of South-England, and inherit a great portion of that ſtrength which Diodorus mentions as characterizing the Celtic females. The dreſs of the Welſh women is exactly ſimilar throughout the principality, and conſiſts of theſe particulars: a petticoat of flannel, the manufacture of the country, either blue or ſtriped; a kind of bed-gown with looſe ſleeves, of the ſame ſtuff, but generally of a brown colour; a broad handkerchief over the neck and ſhoulders; a neat mob-cap, and a man's beaver hat. In dirty, or cold weather, the

the perſon is wrapped in a long blue cloak, which deſcends below the knee. Except when particularly dreſſed, they go without ſhoe or ſtocking; and even if they have theſe luxuries, the latter in general has no foot to it. The man's attire is a jacket, waiſtcoat, and breeches, of their country flannel, the laſt of which are open at the knees, and the ſtockings (for the men generally wear them) are bound under the knees with red garters. Both men and women are vivacious, cheerful, and intelligent, not exhibiting that appearance of torpor and dejection which characterize the labouring poor of our own country; their wants being few, are eaſily ſupplied; a little milk, which their own mountain goat, or the benevolence of a neighbouring farmer, affords them, an oaten cake, and a few potatoes, furniſh the only meal which they deſire. Unvitiated by communication with poliſhed life, they continue to think and act as nature dictates. Confined to their own mountains, they witneſs no ſcenes of profuſion and extravagance to excite envy or malignity, by a compariſon between their own penury and the abundance of others. They look round and ſee nothing but active induſtry and unrepining poverty, and are content.

A Journal of the Occurrences in the Tower of the Temple, by M. Clery, the King's Valet de chambre.

THERE are few things, in this journal, but what are calculated to excite the ſtrongeſt ſympathy for the unhappy ſufferers, and the ſtrongeſt indignation againſt the government and agents capable of ordering and executing cruelties, that are unheard of in the hiſtory of any nation, pretending to be civilized. We ſhall ſelect only a few particulars.

On the 10th of Auguſt 1792, at one o'clock, the king and family expreſſed a deſire to walk, but were refuſed. When they were dining, drums were heard, and ſoon after the cries of the populace. The royal family roſe from table with great uneaſineſs, and aſſembled in the queen's chamber. I went down to dine with Tiſon and his wife, who were employed for the ſervice of the Tower.

We were ſcarcely ſeated, when a head on the point of a pike was held to the window. Tiſon's wife gave a violent ſcream, which the murderers ſuppoſed to have proceeded from the queen, and we heard the ſavages laughing immoderately. Imagining that her majeſty was ſtill at dinner, they placed their victim in ſuch a manner, that it could not eſcape her ſight. The head was the princeſs de Lamballe's, which, though bleeding, was not diſfigured, and her fine light hair, ſtill curling, waved round the pike.

I ran inſtantly to the king. My countenance was ſo altered by terror, that it was perceived by the queen, from whom it was neceſſary to hide the cauſe; and I wiſhed to make it known only to the king, or to madame Eliſabeth, but the two commiſſioners of the municipality were preſent. 'Why don't you go and dine?' ſaid the queen. I replied, that I was not well; and at that moment another municipal officer, entering the Tower, came and ſpoke to his aſſociates with an air of myſtery. On the king's aſking if his family was in ſafety, they anſwered—'It has been reported that you and your family are gone from the Tower, and the people are calling for you to appear at the window, but we ſhall not ſuffer it, for they ought to ſhew more confidence in their magiſtrates.'

In the mean time the clamour without increaſed, and inſults addreſſed to the queen were diſtinctly heard; when another municipal officer came in, followed by four men, deputed by the populace to aſcertain whether the royal family was or was not in the Tower. One of them, accoutered in the uniform of the national guards, with two epaulettes, and a huge ſabre in his hand, inſiſted that the priſoners ſhould ſhow themſelves at the windows, but the municipal officers would not allow it; upon which the fellow ſaid to the queen, in the moſt indecent manner, 'They want to keep you from ſeeing de Lamballe's head, which has been brought you, that you may know how the people avenge themſelves on their tyrants: I adviſe you to ſhow yourſelf, if you will not have them come up here.' At this threat the queen fainted away: I flew to ſupport her, and madame Eliſabeth aſſiſted me in placing her upon a chair, while her children, melting into tears, endeavoured,

voured, by their careſſes to bring her to herſelf. The wretch kept looking on, and the king, with a firm voice, ſaid to him: 'We are prepared for every thing, ſir, but you might have diſpenſed with relating this horrible diſaſter to the queen.' Their purpoſe being accompliſhed, he went away with his companions.

The queen, coming to herſelf, mingled her tears with thoſe of her children, and all the family removed to madame Eliſabeth's chamber, where the noiſes of the mob were leſs heard. I remained a ſhort time in the queen's apartments and looking out at the window, through the blinds, I ſaw again the princeſs de Lamballe's head. The perſon that carried it was mounted upon the rubbiſh of ſome houſes, that were ordered to be pulled down for the purpoſe of inſulating the Tower: another ſtood behind him, holding the heart of that unfortunate princeſs, covered with blood, on the point of a ſabre. The crowd being inclined to force the gate of the Tower, was harangued by a municipal officer, named Daujon, and I very diſtinctly heard him ſay: 'The head of Antoinette does not belong to you: the departments have their reſpective rights to it; France has confided theſe great culprits to the care of the city of Paris; and it is your part to aſſiſt in ſecuring them, until the national juſtice takes vengeance for the people.' He was more than an hour debating with them before he could get them away.

At a ſubſequent period, M. Clery informs us, the characters of the greater part of the municipal officers picked out for the Temple, ſhewed what ſort of men had been employed for the revolution of the 10th of Auguſt, and for the maſſacres of the 2d of September.

One of them, named James, a teacher of the Engliſh language, took it into his head one day to follow the king into his cloſet, and to ſit down by him. His majeſty mildly told him that there his colleagues had always left him by himſelf; that as the door ſtood open he could never be out of his ſight, but that the room was too ſmall for two. James perſiſted in a harſh and brutal manner; the king was forced to ſubmit, and giving up his courſe of reading for that day, returned to his chamber, where the municipal officer continued to beſet him, with the moſt tyrannical ſuperintendance.

One morning, when the king aroſe, he thought the commiſſioner on duty was the ſame who had been upon guard the evening before, and expreſſed ſome concern that he had not been relieved; but this mark of goodneſs was only anſwered with inſults. 'I come here,' ſaid the man, 'to watch your conduct, and not for you to buſy yourſelf with mine.'—Then going up cloſe to his majeſty, with his hat on his head, he continued: —'Nobody has a right to meddle with it, and you leſs than any one elſe.' He was inſolent the whole day. I have ſince learnt that his name was Meunier.

Another Commiſſioner, whoſe name was Le Clerc, a phyſician, being in the queen's chamber when I was teaching the prince to write, interrupted him to pronounce a diſcourſe on the republican education, which it was neceſſary to give the dauphine, and he wanted to change the books he was ſtudying for works of the moſt revolutionary nature.

A fourth was preſent, when the queen was reading to her children from a volume of the hiſtory of France, at the period when the conſtable de Bourbon took up arms againſt France. He pretended that the queen meant by this to inſtil into the mind of her ſon ideas of vengeance againſt his country, and laid a formal information againſt it before the council: which I made known to her majeſty, who afterward ſelected ſubjects that could not be taken hold of to calumniate her intentions.

A man named Simon, a ſhoemaker and municipal officer, was one of the ſix commiſſioners appointed to inſpect the works and exercices of the Temple. He was the only one, who, under pretence of attending rigidly to his duty, never quitted the Tower. This man, whenever he appeared in the preſence of the royal family, always treated them with the wildeſt inſolence; and would frequently ſay to me, ſo near the king as to be heard by him:—'Clery, aſk Capet if he wants any thing, that I mayn't have the trouble of coming up twice.' I was obliged to anſwer that he wanted nothing. This is the ſame Simon to whoſe care the young

young Louis was afterward conſigned, and who by a ſyſtematic barbariſy prolonged the torments of that amiable and unfortunate child: there is alſo great reaſon to believe that he was the inſtrument made uſe of to ſhorten his days.

In teaching the young prince to cypher, I had made a multiplication table, according to directions given by the queen, which a municipal officer pretended was a means ſhe took to teach her ſon how to correſpond by ſecret ſigns, and he was obliged to give up the ſtudy of arithmetic.

The ſame thing had happened with reſpect to the tapeſtry, which the queen and madame Eliſabeth had worked, on their being firſt confined. Having finiſhed ſome chair backs, the queen ordered me to ſend them to the ducheſs de Serent; but the municipal officers, whoſe leave I aſked, thought that the deſigns contained hieroglyphics for the purpoſe of correſponding, and, in conſequence, obtained an order, by which it was forbidden to ſuffer the works of the queen and princeſs to be ſent out out of the Tower.

There were ſome of the municipal officers, who never ſpoke of any of the royal family, without the addition of the moſt inſulting epithets. One of them, named Turlot, one day ſaid in my hearing:—'If no executioner could be found to guillotine this d—d family, I would guillotine them myſelf.'

When the king and family went to walk, they had to paſs by a number of ſentries, of which, even at that period, there were ſeveral ſtationed within the ſmall Tower. The ſoldiers on duty preſented their arms to the municipal officers and commanders of the legions, but when the king approached them, they grounded their firelocks, or clubbed them ludicrouſly.

One of the ſoldiers within, wrote one day on the king's chamber door, and that too on the inſide: 'The guillotine is permanent, and ready for the tyrant Louis XVI.' The king read the words, which I made an attempt to rub out, but his majeſty prevented me.

One of the door-keepers of the Tower, whoſe name was Rocher, a man of horrid figure, accoutered as a pioneer, with long whiſkers, a black hairy cap, a huge ſabre, and a belt, to which hung a bunch of great keys, came up to the door, when the king wanted to go out, but did not open it till his majeſty was quite cloſe, when, pretending to ſearch for the key, among the many he had, which rattled in a terrible manner, he deſignedly kept the royal family waiting, and then dew the bolts with a great clatter. After doing this, he ran down before them, and fixing himſelf on one ſide of the laſt door, with a long pipe in his mouth, puffed the fumes of his tobacco at each of the royal family as they went out, and moſt at the queen and princeſſes. Some national guards, who were amuſed with theſe indignities, came about him, burſt into fits of laughter at every puff of ſmoke, and uſed the groſſeſt language; ſome of them went ſo far as to bring chairs from the guard-room to ſit and enjoy the ſight, obſtructing the paſſage, of itſelf ſufficiently narrow.

While the family were walking, the engineers aſſembled to dance and ſing; their ſongs were alſo revolutionary, ſometimes alſo obſcene.

On the 7th of October, at ſix o'clock at night, I was ſummoned to the council-chamber, where I found a ſcore of municipal officers, with Manuel as preſident, who, from being a ſolicitor to the commune, was become a member of the national convention: the ſight of him ſurpriſed and alarmed me. I was directed to remove, that very night, the *orders* ſtill worn by the king, ſuch as thoſe of St Louis, and the Golden Fleece: his majeſty no longer wore that of the Holy Ghoſt, which had been ſuppreſſed by the firſt aſſembly.

I repreſented, that I could not do it, and that it was not my part to make the decrees of the council known to the king. I hoped by this to gain time to break it to his majeſty, and I perceived, beſides, by their embaraſſment, that they were then acting without the authority of any decree either of the convention, or the commune. The commiſſioners were unwilling to go up to the king, till Manuel determined them by offering to go with them. The king was ſitting, and engaged in reading. Manuel ſpoke firſt, and the converſation which followed was as remarkable for the indecent familiarity of the deputy, as for the temper and ſerenity of the monarch.

'How do you find yourſelf?' ſaid Ma-

Manuel; have you every thing you want?'—'I content myself with what I have,' replied his majesty.—'No doubt you have heard of the victories gained by our armies, of the taking of Spires, Nice, and the conquest of Savoy?'—'I heard it mentioned some days ago, by one of those gentlemen, who was reading the evening journal.' 'What! don't you get the journals, that are become so interesting?—'I never receive any of them.'—'Oh! Sirs,' says Manuel, turning to the municipal officers, and pointing to the king, you must let the *gentleman* have the journals; it is right he should be informed of our successes.'—Then again addressing his majesty.—'Democratic principles are spreading: you know that the people have abolished royalty, and adopted the republican form of government.'—'I have heard it, and I pray to God that the French people may be as happy as I have always wished to make them.'—'You know too that the national assembly has suppressed all orders of chivalry; you ought to have been told to leave off the ornaments of them: return to the class of other citizens, you must expect to be treated like others: with this exception, ask for whatever you want, it shall be immediately procured for you.'—'I thank you,' said the king, 'I want nothing.'—His majesty here returned to his book; and Manuel, who had been endeavouring to discover vexation, or provoke impatience in him, had the mortification of finding only a noble resignation, and an unalterable composure.

There were others of the municipal officers who had the most extravagant whims. One ordered some macaroons to be broken open to see if there was no letter concealed in them. Another, on the same pretence, had some peaches cut before him, and the stones cracked. A third, one day, compelled me to drink the essence of soap prepared for shaving the king, affecting to apprehend it was poison. After dinner and supper madame Elisabeth used to give me a gold-bladed knife to clean, which the municipal officer would often snatch out of my hand, to examine if I had not slipt some paper into the sheath.

Madame Elisabeth having commanded me to send a book of devotions to the duchess de Serent, the municipal officers cut off the margins, for fear any thing should have been written upon them with a secret ink.

One of them, one day, forbade my going up to the queen to dress her hair; her majesty was to come down to the king's apartments, and to bring her powder and combs herself.

Another would follow her into madame Elizabeth's chamber to see her change her clothes, which she usually did at noon: I represented to him the indecency of such behaviour, but he persisted, and her majesty was obliged to give up dressing, and leave the room.

When the linen was brought from the wash, the officers made me unfold it article by article, and examine it always by day-light. The washerwoman's book, and every paper used for packing, were held to the fire, to ascertain whether there were not any secret writing upon them. The linen, after having been worn by the king, queen, prince, and princesses, was in like manner examined before it was given out.

We shall transcribe only one other scene of affliction.

On Thursday, January 17th, M. de Malesherbes came about 9 o'clock in the morning: I ran to meet him: 'All is lost,' said he; 'the king is condemned.' The king, who saw him coming, rose to receive him. The minister threw himself at his feet; his voice was stifled with sobs, and, for several moments, he could not utter a word. The king raised him, and pressed him to his bosom with warmth. M. de Malesherbes then made known to him the decree, sentencing him to death. The king shewed no mark of surprise or agitation: he seemed affected only at the grief of that venerable old man, and even endeavoured to console him.

M. de Malesherbes was preparing to go: the king desired, and was permitted, to speak with him in private. He took him to his closet, shut the door, and remained about an hour alone with him. His majesty then conducted him to the outer door, desired he would return early in the evening, and not forsake him in his last moments. 'The grief of this good old man has deeply affected me,' said the king to me, as he

he came back to his chamber, where I was waiting for him.

From the arrival of M. de Malesherbes, I had been seized with a trembling through my whole frame; however, I got every thing ready for the king to shave. He put on the soap himself, standing up and facing me while I held his bason. Forced to stifle my feelings, I had not yet had resolution to look at the face of my unfortunate master; but my eyes now catching his accidentally, my tears ran over in spite of me. I knew not whether seeing me in that state put the king in mind of his own situation or not, but he suddenly turned very pale: at the sight, my knees trembled and my strength forsook me: the king, perceiving me ready to fall, caught me by both hands and pressing them warmly, said, in a gentle voice, 'Come, more courage! He was observed.' The depth of my affliction was manifested by my silence, of which he seemed sensible. His countenance was reanimated, he shaved himself with composure, and I then dressed him.'

Commentaries on the law of Scotland.

Continued from p. 466.

IN our last number, we transcribed the sketch the author gives of his plan. We shall extract a paragraph or two as specimens of the style and manner of this useful work.

As it is of the very essence of a crime that there be an intention in the actor to commit it, Mr Hume sets out with considering the nature of *Dole*, or that malicious and wilful purpose of the mind, which, in conformity with the dictates of nature and of reason, and agreeably to the uniform current of authorities, is necessary to the guilt of every transgression. An action, in which the will of an agent has no part, is not a proper object either of reward or of punishment, as it possesses no claim to merit, nor can induce any portion of guilt; hence arises the axiom *crimen dolo contrahitur*. Simple negligence alone does not therefore constitute a crime, though it may be of that extremely gross nature which calls for punishment *extra ordinem*. On this subject, the author's remarks are distinguished by good sense and moderation; and at the close of the following paragraph, he gives an ingenious explanation of a maxim of the Roman law, which has been supported and denied by the respective disputants concerning it:

As little is it included in the notion of dole, that the offender have been in the knowledge of the punishment which law annexes to his crime. Nay, though he even thought that it was a lawful act, and liable to no punishment, as in the case of plundering a wrecked vessel, or refusing his own goods seized by the revenue officers, still he shall not have a defence in this belief; for he may, and is bound to know, as much of the law as relates to the regulation of his own conduct, and shall be judged on the presumption that he does so. And thus it is, that certain cases of homicide and other offences are explained, and reduced under the common principle of dole, in which it may seem, at first sight, that the person is punished for pure error, without a criminal intention. The judge, for instance, who pronounces a sentence of death, which is obviously unlawful, is not adjudged guilty of murder because he has erred, but on the footing of his having wilfully done wrong. The law, which cannot know the truth of his excuse, and which perceives the plain advantage that might be taken of such gross pretences, for the indulgence of malice, presumes his knowledge of that which he is not excusable for being ignorant of, and will judge him accordingly. As applied to this matter, this seems to be the true meaning of that maxim, so often mentioned in the Roman law, *culpa lata equiparatur dolo*.'

In the 10th chapter, of vol. 2. treating of verbal injuries, the author considers fully and minutely the crimes of leasing-making, and of sedition; and, as he has pointed out the distinctions subsisting between them in an able and accurate manner, we will transcribe this part, for the purpose of enabling our readers to form an opinion of the manner in which the work is executed:

'Upon the whole of these illustrations, the peculiar and distinctive character of leasing-making appears to lie in this, that it is a verbal injury directed against the King; proceeding, or in the construction of law understood to proceed, from evil disposition with res-

ſpect to him, and intended to do him prejudice as a perſon.

'It is true, that in their conſequences, ſuch miſdemeanours may often lead to the farther miſchief of commotion or diſturbance in the State; and certainly of all theſe practices it may with juſtice be ſaid, that by injuring the reſpect of Majeſty, and leſſening the Sovereign in the eſteem of his ſubjects, they tend, leſs or more, to looſen the bonds of allegiance, and to place the minds of men in that poſition, where they may be ſuſceptible of new impreſſions. Nor is it to be doubted, (indeed in ſome of the ſtatutes it is expreſſed,) that this was one reaſon, among others, why a verbal injury levelled againſt that high perſonage was accounted of a more heinous nature, and was more ſeverely puniſhed, than in the caſe of an ordinary man. But although leaſing-making may occaſion ſuch evil conſequences, the legal notion of that offence does not include any malicious purpoſe to produce them. Its characteriſtic, or peculiar quality, and that which diſtinguiſhes it from ſedition, with which it has ſometimes been confounded, is, that the falſehood is not vented *eo intuitu*,—with the purpoſe of unſettling the State—nor originates in any high or formed project of that ſort, but in the malice only of the inventor towards the King, as a perſon, and has for its object to gratify the ſpleen and ill humour with which the defamer is poſſeſſed in regard to him, or, (if that may be,) to moleſt and diſquiet the King, and do him an injury in his fame. When committed againſt his Majeſty, it is ſtill a crime of the ſame claſs and character, as when committed, (which according to the act 1540 it may equally be), againſt any of his Counſellors or great Barons. And certainly it will not be ſaid of every ſlander or malicious tale carried to the King of any of thoſe perſons, that it neceſſarily implies a purpoſe to corrupt the loyalty of the people, and breed diſturbance in the ſtate. This, therefore, is one circumſtance, (though apt to be overlooked, owing to the long diſuſe of ſuch proſecutions on the part of ſubjects), which marks the juſt and peculiar character of leaſing-making, as a high and aggravated ſort of *ſlander*.

'It is alſo in this reſpect diſtinguiſhed from ſedition; that it always has relation to the King, or, (if that is not aboliſhed by long diſuſe), to ſome eminent individual connected with the Court, and can only be committed by means of falſe ſpeeches, or reproachful and contemptuous words thrown out againſt him*. But ſedition is a crime of a far wider and more various deſcription, as well as of a deeper character, which may equally be committed in relation to any of the other powers, orders, or parts of the public conſtitution of the land, or to any claſs or diviſion of the ſociety of its inhabitants, and without the uſe of ſpecial calumnies or ſlanders againſt the King, or any other individual; as by the forming of combinations, the taking of reſolutions, the circulation of doctrines and opinions, or, in general, the purſuit of any *courſe of meaſures and actions*, ſuch as directly tends to reſiſtance of the Legiſlature or eſtabliſhed government, or the modelling of the State without the authority of law. No invective, therefore, how violent ſoever, againſt monarchy in general, no abuſe, the moſt outrageous, of the Britiſh conſtitution, no proceedings, though ever ſo plainly tending to aboliſh that venerable ſyſtem, and ſet up a new form of government in its room, would juſtify a charge of leaſing-making. Becauſe, though all involving the ſtate and office of the King, as part of the conſtitution, ſuch projects are levelled againſt the whole ſyſtem, and are not moved out of ſpecial grudge to the Prince upon the throne, but ſpring from a deeper and more malignant principle, as well as employ more direct and more extenſive means, than that of mere ſlander of the perſon and conduct of the King, thus ſedition is a proper crime againſt the State, and holds the next place after treaſon, to which it is nearly allied, and which it may often, but by a ſhort interval, precede. The other is a perſonal offence or verbal injury offered to the King, and which the law conſiders in ſo much a more ſerious light than other injuries of that claſs, partly by reaſon of the juſt regard it has to the peace and tranquility of the head of the State, the moſt eminent perſon in the land; and partly by reaſon of the poſſible evil influence of ſuch an example on the affections and diſpoſitions of his ſubjects.

* "Skene, in his Treatiſe of Crimes, tit. 2. c. 12. No. 4. claſſes leaſing-making as a ſpecies of the general crime of *Falſet*."

'In ſome inſtances it may indeed be difficult to draw the line between the two tranſgreſſions; but this no more hinders them to be diſtinct, than in the caſe of forgery and falſehood, or of theft, fraud, and breach of truſt; charges which are ſtill more difficult to be diſtinguiſhed by certain and palpable rules. For inſtance, to curſe the King and his race, and to pour out ſlanders or reproaches and evil wiſhes againſt him,—if it be done at the inſtant, by one who finds himſelf diſmiſſed from a lucrative office about the King's perſon, and if it is accompanied with the ordinary ſymptoms of vexation and diſappointment; this effuſion of ill temper; though far from ſalutary to ſuch as witneſs it, and certainly cognizable in a criminal court, is not, however, an act of proper ſedition. It is not a *meaſure*, taken to debauch the people and diſturb the State, but a pure injury to the King; a contempt and reproach, (*convicium*), directed againſt him, and uttered out of diſlike of his Majeſty as a perſon, or to ſatisfy the ſpleen and rancour of the ſpeaker. But if, (as in the caſe of Craig, Morton, and others,) the like practice is detected at a period which teems with projects of change, and in perſons who are found to have entered one of the King's garriſons, and there, in preſence of the King's ſoldiers, to have drunk perdition to the King and his race, *and to all crowned heads*, and to have accompanied this impious wiſh with promiſes and inſinuations of advantage to the ſoldiers, if they will betray the King, or with ſuch diſcourſes as are plainly calculated to ſhake their fidelity; then this ſame fundamental act, thus qualified and expounded, is no longer a bare contumely or indecency, (as in the caſe of Fleming, or of Oliphant), but an act of palpable and real ſedition,—an attempt and meaſure to corrupt the forces of the ſtate, and deprive it of its means of defence againſt tumult and inſurrection.

'Again let us imagine a time, ſo profligate as to produce a ſatire on the Royal Family; full of perſonal reproach and obloquy to the King, his progenitors and race. Let us ſuppoſe it to deſcribe them as deſtitute of all the virtues of their ſtation, and addicted to the vices and the pleaſures of the loweſt of the people; and that in ſupport of this invective, the libel proceeds with a falſe narrative of ſundry incidents in the King's houſehold or family concerns. Wicked and abominable as ſuch a compoſition is; yet if it be entirely of this ſlanderous deſcription, and neither is mingled with obſervation and inferences of a political nature, nor can, from circumſtances, be ſhewn to have been calculated for any purpoſe of public commotion, and eſpecially if it can be traced to any cauſe of perſonal quarrel with any of the Royal Family; it ſtill does not amount to the State crime of ſedition, but only to leaſing-making or defamation of the King, and may be proſecuted on the ſtatutes in that behalf.

'But we muſt needs think otherwiſe of that author, who, having no ſuch cauſe of quarrel with his Majeſty, ſhall compoſe a work of reaſoning and argument, wherein, indulging in the like reproach of the Royal Perſon, he ſhall attempt to ſhew that all kingly government is an abuſe, and that our own monarchy is a ſyſtem of fraud and injuſtice; and as a remedy for theſe evils, ſhall propoſe a plan of aſſociation, to new model the ſtate after another and more popular faſhion. An addreſs of this kind is not merely out of pique or ſpleen, or for indulgence of humour againſt a perſon, but hath a more ſerious character, and a deeper ſeat. It is *a meaſure and proceeding*, which tends *directly* to occaſion a breach between Prince and people, *and is taken by the author for no other purpoſe*.

'In theſe inſtances the diſtinction is eaſy to be perceived. Yet it is not and cannot be denied, that in other inſtances there is a near affinity of the two crimes: in ſo much that caſes may be imagined (and perhaps this is true of ſome which have been already cited), of ſuch a character, as ſhall be in one both leaſing-making and ſedition, or of which it ſhall be hard to ſay whether they more properly belong to the one or other denomination, or which might with propriety be libelled alternatively, as the one or the other, according to the circumſtances of the fact, as they ſhall appear in evidence upon the trial. In the caſe, accordingly, of James Sands and others, which was in ſome meaſure of this deſcription, there was not only a charge of leaſing-making upon the ſlander as referrable to

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the Queen, but a charge of undue and scandalous reflections cast upon the government of the country.

'Put the case, that a disgraced favourite assembles his friends, and acquaints them that the King is a Papist, and has a purpose against the Protestant religion; under which pretence he exhorts them to resistance, and concerts with them the means of strengthening their interest with the people, so as may make head against him. This seems to be both leasing-making and sedition. It is the telling of a lie against the King, and upon that lie grounding a measure of hostility and disaffection, to disturb the State.

'But although the two offences may thus in some instances coincide, yet leasing-making and sedition are not convertible terms. There is leasing-making which is not sedition; and there is sedition which is not leasing-making, and could not with any propriety be charged as such. This, in particular, was the judgment of the Court upon the indictments of Muir, Palmer, Gerald, and their associates, tried for seditious practices, in 1793, and 1794. And certainly this distinction applied to those cases in its fullest force. For in none of them was there any slander circulated, or of reproach or contempt thrown out against his present Majesty, but of writings distributed, combinations formed, meetings held, and resolutions taken, such as were calculated to withdraw the affections of the people from the established government of the land, and dispose them to work its downfal at all hazards, and without regard or distinction of means.

'With respect to the punishment of leasing-making. It is limited by the act of Anne, to fine, imprisonment, or banishment: under which last term, in the cases of Gerald and Sinclair, in February and March 1794, the Lords of Justiciary had occasion incidentally, but very deliberately, to give their opinion, that banishment by transportation to the foreign colonies is included.'

The Monthly Review gives the following character of this work:

We must not dismiss this article without declaring that we have read the whole performance with pleasure and instruction; nor without recommending it to the attention of the public, for the distinctness and accuracy of its information, the moderation and candour of its sentiments, and the clearness and frequent eloquence of its diction.

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Mis-

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Report of the Committee of the House of Commons, in consequence of the several Motions relative to the Treatment of Prisoners of War. Including the whole of the Examinations taken before the Committee, the Correspondence relative to the Exchange of Prisoners, the Instructions of Colonel Tate, &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. *Wright.*—Every true Englishman will hear with pleasure that the rumours, which had gone abroad respecting the very harsh treatment said to have been experienced in this country by the French prisoners, are proved by this report to be in a great measure, if not totally, void of foundation. By the various documents given in the appendix, and cited in the report, it appears that, with respect to food, air, and the general accommodation of the prisoners, both in the hospitals and the prisons, Government have been properly attentive. Abuses, however, it seems, have in some instances arisen, either from the negligence, or the avarice of contractors: but, according to this report, wherever they have been detected, either by the vigilance of M. Charettié, the French agent, or by other means, they were immediately redressed. *M. R.*

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POETRY.

POETRY.

OCCASIONAL ADDRESS.

WRITTEN BY MR ROSCOE.

And delivered by MR HOLMAN, *on the night appropriated for the Benefit of the* CHILDREN *of the late* MR PALMER, *at the Theatre-Royal, Liverpool.*

YE airy Sprites who oft as fancy calls,
Sport 'mid the precincts of these haunted walls,
Light forms that float in mirth's tumultuous throng,
And frolic, dance, and revelry, and song—
Fold your gay wings—repress your wonted fire—
And from your favourite seats a while retire:
And thou—whose powers sublimer thoughts impart,
Queen of the springs that move the human heart,
With change alternate, at whose magic call
The swelling tides of passion rise or fall—
Thou too withdraw—for 'midst thy lov'd abode,
With step more stern, a mightier power has trod.
Here, on this spot, to every eye confest,
Inrob'd with terrors stood the kingly guest.
Here, on this spot, death wav'd th' unerring dart,
And struck his noblest prize—an honest heart.
What wondrous links the human feelings bind!
How strong the secret sympathies of mind!
As fancy's pictur'd forms around us move,
We hope or fear, rejoice, detest, or love—
Nor heaves the sigh for selfish woes alone:
Congenial sorrows mingle with our own.
Hence, as the poet's raptur'd eye-balls roll.
The fond delirium seizes all the soul,
And whilst his pulse concordant measures keeps,
He smiles in transport, or in anguish weeps.
But ah! lamented shade! not thine to know
The anguish only of imagin'd woe:
Doom'd the lov'd partner of thy soul to mourn,
And fond parental ties untimely torn:
Then whilst thy bosom, lab'ring with its grief,
From fabled sorrows sought a short relief;
The fancied woes too true to nature's tone,
Burst the slight barrier and became thy own,
In mingled tides the swelling passions ran,
Absorb'd the Actor, and o'erwhelm'd the Man;
Martyr of sympathy! more sadly true
Than fancy feign'd or poet ever drew!
Say, why by Heaven's acknowledg'd hand impress
Such keen sensations actuate all the breast?
Why throbs the heart for joys that long have fled?
Why lingers hope around the silent dead?
Why spurns the spirit its encumbering clay,
And longs to soar to happier realms away?
Does Heaven, unjust, the fond desire instill,
To add to mortal woes another ill?
Are there no beings of etherial frame
That in soft whispers prompt the nightly dream?
Or midst long musings of remembrance sweet
Inspire the secret wish—once more to meet?
There are, for not by more determined laws
The sympathetic steel the magnet draws,
Than the free spirit acts with strong controul
On its responsive sympathies of soul;
And tells, in characters of truth unfurl'd,
There is another and a better World.
Yet, whilst we sorrowing tread this earthly ball,
For human woes a human tear will fall.
Blest be that tear—who gives it, doubly blest—
That heals with balm the Orphan's bleeding breast.
Not all that breathes in morning's genial dew
Revives the parent plant where once it grew; (aid
Yet may those dews, with timely nurture
The infant flowrets drooping in the shade,
Whilst memory of tried worth and manners mild,
A Father's virtues, still protect his Child.

SONG

Composed and sung by Mr Deighton, *at a Meeting of the St Martin's Volunteers.*

IN times like these—pop, cut, and flash—this monstrous fighting age, Sirs,
When—shoulder, fire, and face about, is every where the rage, Sirs;
When Britons arm in Briton's cause—what foes can make us yield, Sirs?
And where's the lads more loyal than, St Martin's in the field, Sirs?
Then merry be the Lads who fight, for Commons, King, and Peers, Sirs;
And may prosperity attend St Martin's Volunteers, Sirs.

Though not alike in shape or size, our sentiments agree, Sirs,
Should Frenchmen doubt our patriot zeal, e'en let them come and see, Sirs;

And though we're ſometimes ſtrangely
group'd, yet none will dare oppoſe, Sirs,
That if we're not well match'd ourſelves,
we well can match our foes, Sirs.
Then merry be, &c.

We've Bankers, Lawyers, Doctors, Gro-
cers, Shoemakers, and Bakers, Sirs,
We've Tailors, Hoſiers, Glovers, Painters,
Smiths, and Undertakers, Sirs,
And many more, whoſe praiſe aloud, ſhall
Britons cheerful ſing, Sirs,
Who ſtand protectors of their Wives, their
Children, and their King, Sirs.
Then merry be, &c.

The Lawyer folks ſhould lead the *van*; for
not to ſpeak too large, Sirs,
All know, who've ſeen a Lawyer's bill,
they're not afraid to *charge*, Sirs;
I'm ſure in each engagement they, would
ever foremoſt be, Sirs;
And twenty *actions* in a day, would ſuit them
to a T, Sirs.
Then merry be, &c.

The Doctors they will prime them well,
with powder, ball, and pill, Sirs;
And well we know that eight in ten, they're
always ſure to kill, Sirs;
Their *mortars* they will keep well charg'd
with ſuch good things as they know beſt,
And *draught* them off for t'other world, and
ſend them quietly to reſt.
Then merry be, &c.

We've Bakers who would ring a *peal*, till
foes cried—*fire* and *faggots*, Sirs;
And Cheeſemongers, thoſe *mighty* men,
would make e'm ſkip like *maggots*, Sirs;
Our Tailors would their *jackets trim*, our
Barbers bring their *poles* out, Sirs,
Our Shoemakers would *peg* and *ſtrap*, and
knock their very *ſoles* out, Sirs.
Then merry be, &c.

Beſide theſe military Blades, we've Conſta-
bles ſo civil, Sirs,
That if our foes are inſolent, will ſend them
to the Devil, Sirs,
They'll prove themſelves brave ſpecial men,
and tho' they've ne'er ta'en arms,
Will make their foes ſoon ſhake their *legs*—
they'll ſoon be tir'd of wars alarms.
Then merry be, &c.

Then let us fill, be this our toaſt, *May Eng-
land long be free*, Sirs,
And ever, in the glorious cauſe, her ſons
united be, Sirs;
May he who'd break the ſocial band, that
links us to each other, Sirs,
Be baniſh'd from Old England's ſhore, and
forc'd to ſeek another, Sirs.
Then merry be, &c.

MONASTIC LIFE*.

AND in thoſe iron times, no foreſt wide
But ſhrouded robbers and aſſaſſins fell,
For Juſtice knew not well her way to guide,
Not having Cuſtoms's clue, to that lorn cell
Where they were wont 'mid ferns and briars
dwell†;
Can there be one in better ages born,
Who has not heard delighted infants tell,
Of Robin Hood, his bow and bugle horn,
And how he chaſed the deer o'er Sher-
wood's wild forlorn?
Ah me! much irks it fearful mind to tell,
Such treſpaſs vile how holy church diſ-
praiſed,
In middle maſs, the great reluctant bell
By minutes tolled, the croſs on high was
raiſed,
And now the lighted torch, that ſudden
blazed.
As ſudden quenched, a dreary ſymbol
ſhowed‡;
The kneeling ſinner in dumb horror gazed,
The maſs prieſt's cheek with burning bluſhes
glowed,
While ſlowly ſyllabled theſe formal curſes
flowed.
'Dark be thoſe eyes, that dare with luſt
behold
Another's earnings, in eternal night;'
Amen, and ſlowly once the great bell
tolled;
'Thoſe hands be ſhrivell'd by a withering
blight,
That wealth purvey by deeds of unjuſt
might,'
Amen, and once the great bell tolled again;
'Like fortune on the guilty limbs alight,
Such hands that aid;' at end of every ſtrain
The great bell tolled, Amen reſponded all
the train.
'Be all thy days inceſſant curſed with
toil;
Be void of reſt, and yet to reſt inclined;
Be all thy booty but another's ſpoil.
Bewild'ring jeopardies o'erhang thy wind,
Nor backward look but foes purſuing find;
Of peril quit, ſtill to thy liſtening ear
A ſpeeding horſeman ſound in every wind;
Till lacking crimſon life thy carcaſe fear,
Though never ceaſing pain ſhall preſs an
early bier.

* As a ſpecimen of the Economy of 'Monaſtic Life,' by Mr Fosbrooke, lately publiſhed.

† The foreſt of Dean, among others, was much infeſted by robbers, who were not ſuppreſſed till 8 H. VI. Camp. p. 230.

‡ Ceremonies of the greater excommunication.

And

'And ſoon as doomed to preſs that early bier,
In damned talons be thy ſoul conveyed,
To the accurſed houſe of Death and Fear
And Darkneſs *; there be thy allotment made
With Judas who the Lord of Life betrayed;
Refining in expurgatory flame,
Be there thy agonizing ſpirit laid,
Until immaculate of ſin and ſhame,
It meet be to invoke a Saviour's hallowed name.'

'Long as ſuch ſins thy guilty ſoul imbrue
So long theſe curſes in dread force remain,
So long theſe curſes ſhall thoſe ſins purſue;'
Amen—Amen returned the total train,
Fiat—a general Fiat ſhook the fane;
Still kneeled that robber, with erected hair
And features ſmiling horribly with pain,
Now Frenzy rolled his eyes, and now Deſpair
Changed them to ſightleſs orbs with petrifying ſtare.'

* Both the Greeks and Jews ſuppoſed the ſoul conveyed to its place of diſtination by ſpirits. Plat. Dial. Oxf. ed. 3, 8vo. p. 287. Whitby's Paraph. V. 1, pp. 381, 399.

MONTHLY REGISTER.

ACCOUNT OF THE REBELLION IN IRELAND.

(*Continued from page* 494.)

Dublin Caſtle, June 24.

My Lord, I have the honour to tranſmit to your grace, a diſpatch received by Lord Viſcount Caſtlereagh, this day, from Lieutenant-General Lake, dated Wexford, the 22d inſtant; together with a letter from Brigadier-General Moore, containing an account of his important ſucceſſes.

I alſo incloſe a copy of the propoſals made by the rebels in the town of Wexford, to Lieutenant General Lake, and his anſwer. I have the honour to be, &c. Cornwallis.

His Grace the Duke of Portland, &c.

Wexford, June 22.

My Lord, Yeſterday afternoon, I had the honour to diſpatch a letter to your Lordſhip, from Enniſcorthy, with the tranſactions of the day, for his exceſſency the Lord-Lieutenant's information; and the incloſed copy of a letter from Brigadier-General Moore, to Major-General Johnſon, will account for my having entered this place without oppoſition. General Moore with his uſual enterpriſe and activity, puſhed on to this town, and entered it ſo opportunely as to prevent it being laid in aſhes, and the maſſacre of the remaining priſoners, which the rebels declared their reſolution of carrying into effect the next day; and there can be little doubt it would have taken place, for the day before they murdered above ſeventy priſoners, and threw their bodies over the bridge.

Incloſed is a copy of my anſwer to the propoſal of the inhabitants of this town, tranſmitted in my letter of yeſterday to your Lordſhip. The evacuation of the town by the rebels renders it unneceſſary. I have the pleaſure to acquaint your Lordſhip, that the ſubſcriber of the inſolent propoſals, Mr Keugh, and one of their principal leaders, Mr Roach, with a few others, are in my hands without negociation. The rebels are reported to be in ſome force within five miles of this place; it is ſuppoſed for the purpoſe of ſubmiſſion, to which the event of yeſterday may ſtrengthen their inclination. I have reaſon to think there are a number ſo diſpoſed, and that I ſhall be able to ſecure ſome more of their leaders; but ſhould I be diſappointed in my expectations, and find they collect in any force, I ſhall loſe no time in attacking them. I have the honour to be, &c.

G. Lake.

P. S. From enquiry, the numbers killed yeſterday, were very great indeed.

Lord Viſcount Caſtlereagh.

Camp above Wexford, June 22.

Dear General, Agreeable to your order, I took poſt on the evening of the 19th, near Fook's-mill, in the park of Mr Sutton. Next day I ſent a ſtrong detachment, under Lieutenant Colonel Wilkinſon, to patrol toward Tintern and Clonmines, with a view to ſcour

the country, and communicate with the troops you directed me to join from Duncannon. The Lieutenant Colonel found the country deſerted, and got no tidings of the troops. I waited for them until three o'clock in the afternoon, when deſpairing of their arrival, I began my march to Taghmon. We had not marched above half a mile when a conſiderable body of the rebels was perceived marching towards us. I ſent my advanced guards, conſiſting of the two rifle companies of the 60th, to ſkirmiſh with them, while a howitzer and ſix-pounder were advanced to a croſs road above Goff's bridge, and ſome companies of light infantry formed on each ſide of them, under Lieutenant-Colonel Wilkinſon. The rebels attempted to attack theſe, but were inſtantly repulſed, and driven beyond the bridge. A large body were perceived at the ſame time moving toward my left. Major Alymer, and afterward Major Daniel, with five companies of light infantry and a ſix pounder, were detached againſt them. The 60th regiment, finding no further oppoſition in front, had of themſelves inclined to their left, to engage the body which was attempting to turn us. The action here was for a ſhort time pretty ſharp. The rebels were in great numbers, and armed with both muſquets and pikes; they were, however, forced to give way, and driven, though they repeatedly attempted to form, behind the ditches. They at laſt diſperſed, flying toward Enniſcorthy and Wexford. Their killed could not be aſcertained, as they lay ſcattered in the fields over a conſiderable extent, but they ſeemed to be numerous. I incloſe a liſt of ours (this liſt was omitted). The troops behaved with great ſpirit; the artillery and Hompeſch's cavalry were active, and ſeemed only to regret that the country did not admit of their rendering more effectual ſervice. Major Daniel is the only officer whoſe wound is bad; it is through the knee, but not dangerous.

The buſineſs which began between three and four, was not over till near eight. It was then too late to proceed to Taghmon. I took poſt for the night on the ground where the action had commenced. As the rebels gave way I was informed of the approach of the 2d and 29th regiments under Lord Dalhouſie. In the morning of the 21ſt we were proceeding to Taghmon, where I was met by an officer of the North Cork from Wexford, with the incloſed letters. I gave of courſe no anſwer to the propoſal made by the inhabitants of Wexford, but I thought it my duty immediately to proceed here and to take poſt above the town, by which means I have perhaps ſaved the town itſelf from fire, as well as the lives of many loyal ſubjects who were priſoners in the hands of the rebels. The rebels fled, upon my approach, over the bridge of Wexford, and toward the barony of Forth. I ſhall wait here your further orders. Lord Kingſborough has informed me of different engagements he had entered into with reſpect to the inhabitants. I have declined entering upon the ſubject, but have referred his Lordſhip to you or General Lake.

I received your pencilled note during the action of the 20th: it was impoſſible for me then to detach the troops you aſked for, but I hear you have perfectly ſucceeded at Enniſcorthy with thoſe you had. Mr Roach who commands the rebels is encamped, I hear, about five miles off. He has ſent to Lord Kingſborough to ſurrender upon terms. Your preſence ſpeedily is, upon every account, extremely neceſſary. I am, &c. JOHN MOORE.

Major General Johnſon.

P. S. It is difficult to judge of the numbers of rebels, they appear in ſuch crowds and ſo little order. Information ſtates thoſe we beat to have been between 5 and 6,000.

Propoſals of the Rebels.

June 21, 1798.

That Captain M'Manus ſhall proceed from Wexford toward Oulart, accompanied by Mr E. Hay, appointed by the inhabitants of all religious perſuaſions, to inform the Officer commanding the king's troops that they are ready to deliver up the town of Wexford without oppoſition, lay down their arms, and return to their allegiance, provided that their perſons and properties are guaranteed by the commanding Officer, and that they will uſe every influence in their power to induce the people of the country at large to return to their allegiance alſo.

Theſe

These terms we hope Captain M'Manus will be able to procure.

Signed, by order of the inhabitants of the town of Wexford.

MATHEW KEUGHE.

Answer.

Enniscorthy, June 22, 1798.

Lieutenant-General Lake cannot attend to any terms offered by rebels in arms against their Sovereign. While they continue so, he must use the force entrusted to him with the utmost energy for their destruction.

To the deluded multitude he promises pardon, on their delivering into his hands their leaders, surrendering their arms, and returning with sincerity to their allegiance.

(Signed) G. LAKE.

To the inhabitants of Wexford.

Admiralty-Office, June 29.

Copy of a letter from Captain Sir Thomas Williams, commander of his Majesty's ship Endymion, to Evan Nepean, Esq. dated off Wexford, the 22d of June.

I beg to acquaint you, for the information of my Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, that when cruising at the entrance of St George's Channel with the squadron under my command I received information on the 19th, that the King's troops were to commence their attack on the rebels at Wexford on the 20th or 21st, I immediately proceeded off that harbour with the Endymion, Phœnix, Glenmore, Melampus, Unicorn, and five cutters which I had collected. Lieut. Carpenter, senior Lieutenant of the Endymion was immediately dispatched in command of the cutters and ships launches, manned and armed with carronades in their prows, to blockade the inward part of the entrance of the harbour, and to prevent the escape of the rebel armed vessels, and others, of which they were in possession, to the amount of 40 or 50 sail. On the 21st I was joined by the Chapman and Weazle sloops, which, being of light draught of water, anchored much nearer in than the frigates could venture, and thereby gave more effectual protection to the cutters and launches destined to attack the harbour and fort at the entrance of it, which fired on them. On the arrival of Captain Keen of the Chapman, I directed him to conduct the operations of the cutters and launches, and to endeavour to possess himself of the harbour and fort, the tides being so low, and the wind blowing out, that neither of the sloops could get in. The launches proceeded to attack the fort, of which they soon possessed themselves, upwards of 200 of the rebels precipitately retreating from it, leaving behind them their colours flying and three six pounders. The launches then immediately proceeded up the harbour; and upon their arrival at the town, had the happiness to find the King's troops were just marching into it, having entirely defeated the rebels in two separate attacks on the 20th and 21st; and who are now flying in all directions; two of their Generals, Hay and Roache, taken prisoners.

As the object of the squadron remaining at anchor here is now fully accomplished, it is my intention to get to sea to-morrow, if possible: and I am happy to be informed, since the reduction of Wexford, that the appearance of his Majesty's ships and vessels off the harbour, and the measures pursued by them, has been attended with the happiest consequences, and greatly contributed to check the further progress of the horrible massacres that have been committed in the town of Wexford, disgraceful to humanity.

There being a number of boats and small vessels along the coast, belonging to the rebels, which I conceived would be employed in facilitating the escape of the fugitives, I have ordered the boats of the squadron in, and destroyed about 100 of them; in some, pikes were found concealed.

The public service, was greatly benefited by the judicious arrangements of Captain Keen and Lieut. Carpenter, and by the zeal and activity manifested by them, and the officers and people employed in the different ships, boats, and launches under their command, and otherwise.

Dublin Castle, June 25.

MY LORD, I have the honour of inclosing to your Grace, the copy of a letter received this day by Lord Castlereagh, from Major-General Sir Charles Asgill, and a return of the killed, wounded, and missing, by the attack on Vinegar-hill, and the town of Enniscorthy. I have the honour to be, &c.

CORNWALLIS.

His Grace the Duke of Portland, &c.

Kilkenny, June 24. Nine o'clock P. M.

MY LORD, I have the honour to inform you, that early on the morning of the 23d inſtant, I received information that the rebels, amounting to ſeveral thouſands, had eſcaped from the county of Wexford, and formed a camp at Killymount, and were proceeding to Gores-Bridge. I inſtantly aſſembled all the force I could collect, and marched toward them. I did not arrive in time to prevent their defeating a detachment at that place, and taking twenty-four men of the Wexford militia priſoners. They marched off rapidly towards Leighlin. The troops from thence, conſiſting of a ſmall party of the ninth dragoons, commanded by Lieutenant Higgins, Lieutenant-Colonel Rochfort's and Captain Cornwall's yeomanry, killed ſixty of them. Night coming on, I could not purſue them any further. By the poſition they took up near Sharkhill, I conceived their intentions were to form a junction with the colliers at Caſtlecomar. As ſoon as the troops were able to move, I marched with nine hundred men to attack them, and was ſorry to find, they had burnt the whole town, and forced the ſoldiers who were in it, to retire before my arrival. Having cleared the town with the guns, I attacked them on all ſides. About four hundred were killed, the remainder fled. They were commanded by a prieſt called Murphy, and their numbers are ſaid to amount to 5000. Our loſs was inconſiderable. My force conſiſted of the Wexford and Wicklow militia, under the command of Lord Loftus, and the honourable Colonel Howard. The dragoons were commanded by Major Donaldſon, of the 9th dragoons, and Major Barnard, of the Romney fencibles, with ſeveral yeomen corps from this county and Carlow, who, as well as the other troops, are entitled to my warmeſt praiſe for their bravery and alertneſs on this and every other occaſion.

C. ASGIL, Maj. Gen.

Total, 2 Field officers wounded, 2 Captains killed, 2 ſubalterns killed, and 2 wounded; 2 ſerjeants killed, 1 wounded 1 miſſing; 16 rank and file killed, 62 wounded, 5 miſſing.

Dublin Caſtle, June 27.

Major-General Sir Charles Aſgill, Bart. to Lord Viſcount Caſtlereagh.

Kilkenny, June 26.

MY LORD, Fearing the conſequences that might reſult from allowing the rebels who fled from Wexford to remain any length of time in this county, I preferred attacking them with the troops I already had, to waiting till a reinforcement arrived. My force amounted to 1100 men. The rebels conſiſted of about 5000. I attacked them this morning, at ſix o'clock, in their poſition on Kilconnel Hill, near Gore's-bridge, and ſoon defeated them. Their chief, called Murphy, a prieſt, and upwards of 1000 men, were killed. Ten pieces of cannon, two ſwivels, their colours, and quantities of ammunition, arms, cattle, &c. were taken: and I have the pleaſure to add, that ſome ſoldiers who were made priſoners the day before, and doomed to ſuffer death, were fortunately releaſed by our troops.

Our loſs conſiſted only of ſeven men killed and wounded. The remainder of the rebels were purſued into the county of Wexford, where they diſperſed in different directions.

I feel particularly obliged to Major Mathews, of the Downſhire militia, who, at a ſhort notice, and with great alacrity, marched with four hundred men of his regiment, and Captain Pool's and the yeomanry corps of Maryborough, under the command of Captain Gore, to co-operate with me, Lord Loftus, Lieut. Col. Ram, of the Wexford militia; and Lieut. Col. Howard, and Lieut. Col. Ratcliff of the Wicklow; Major Donaldſon, of the 9th dragoons, who commanded the cavalry, as well as all the officers and privates, are entitled to my thanks for their ſpirited exertions. Nor can I withhold the praiſe which is ſo juſtly due to all the yeomanry corps employed on this occaſion; and I alſo beg leave to mention my Aid de camp, Captain Ogle, and Lieut. Higgins, of the 9th dragoons, who has acted as my Brigade Major. I have the honour to be, &c. C. ASGIL, Maj. Gen.

Dublin Caſtle, June 28.

Accounts have been received from Lieut. Gardiner of the Antrim militia, that early on Monday the 25th inſt. a body of rebels, conſiſting of ſeveral thouſands, marched from the mountains of Wicklow, to attack Hacket

ſtown. On ſeeing them approach, Lieut. Gardiner, with the troops under his command, viz. fifty Upper Talbotſtown, twenty-four Shebagh cavalry, fifty of the Antrim regiment, forty-ſix Hacketſtown, and thirty Coolattin yeoman infantry, took poſt on the moſt advantageous ground near the town, to endeavour to prevent the rebels from gaining poſſeſſion of it; but after a few rounds the rebels filed off in every direction, with an intent to ſurround and cut him off.—Lieut. Gardiner then retreated with the infantry to line the walls and windows of the barrack. A conteſt continued in the midſt of flames (for the rebels ſet fire to the town) for nine hours, when they were obliged to retreat. Lieut. Gardiner ſtates that the rebels ſuffered greatly, and that thirty cart-loads of their killed and wounded were carried off by them in their retreat, and many of their dead were found in the ſtreets and ditches.

Lieutenant Gardiner acknowledges, in the warmeſt terms, the gallant conduct of the officers and men, and gives particular praiſe to Lieut. James Rowan, of the Antrim regiment; Captain Hume, of the Upper Talbotſtown cavalry; Captain and Lieutenant Chamley, of the Coolattin infantry; Lieutenants Saul and Thomas, of the Hacketſtown corps; and Lieutenants Braddell and Taylor, of the Shebagh cavalry; and Serjeant Nixon, of the Antrim regiment.

Lieutenant Gardiner ſeverely regrets the loſs of a good officer, Captain Hardy, of the Hacketſtown yeoman infantry, who fell early in the action.

Kilkenny, June 27.

My Lord, I have the honour to ſend you incloſed a return of the killed and wounded in the action with the rebels, at Kilconnel Hill, on the 26th of June, and a return of the ordnance, ammunition, &c. &c. taken on that day. I have the pleaſure to aſſure you, that every thing they poſſeſſed has fallen into our hands; and, from ſubſequent accounts, the loſs they ſuſtained was much greater than I had the honour of ſtating to you in my former diſpatch. I have no doubt but this victory will reſtore the counties of Kilkenny and Carlow to peace and tranquility. I have the honour to be, &c.

Cha. Asgil, Maj. Gen.

Right Hon Viſcount Caſtlereagh.

Total, 1 Lieutenant, 1 Corporal killed; 1 Serjeant and 3 rank and file wounded; 5 horſes killed, and 1 miſſing.

Officer killed.

Lieutenant Sones of the Mount-Leinſter yeoman infantry,

Return of ordnance, colours, and ammunition taken.

One colours, five 4 pounders, five 1 pounders, four ſwivels, a few guns, and a number of pikes, which were deſtroyed as ſoon as taken; a number of ſhot of different ſizes, with a quantity of lead and moulds.

Return of ſtores taken.

Black cattle - -	170
Sheep - - -	100
Horſes - - -	700
Total,	970

Alſo a vaſt quantity of bedding, blanketting, and wearing apparel.

J. Lewis Higgins,
Lieut. 9th dragoons, acting Brigade Major.

Dublin Caſtle, July 6.

Letters have been this day received from Majors General Needham and Sir James Duffe, dated at Gorey, the 5th inſtant, which ſtate, that they had marched from their different poſitions on the night of the 4th, in order to ſurpriſe a large body of the rebels poſted at the White Heaps. The rebels having moved early on the morning of the 5th from their poſt, were met by Sir James Duffe's column at the Wicklow Gap, and, after a few cannon ſhot, they retreated.

Sir James Duffe purſued;—General Needham's column was at too great a diſtance for his infantry to aſſiſt, but his cavalry joined in the purſuit, which continued for twelve miles, when they were ſtopped on ſome riſing grounds: Here the regiments under Sir James Duffe coming up, viz. the 89th, the Louth, and the Leitrim, with their curricle guns, the rebels were put to flight, with very conſiderable ſlaughter, and diſperſed in all directions.

Major-General Needham praiſes the good conduct of his aid-de-camp Capt. Moore. Sir James Duffe ſpeaks in the higheſt terms of the zeal and ſpirited good conduct of the officers and men under his command, and aſcribes his ſucceſs to the exertions of the commanding

manding officers of the different corps, and Lieut. Hemmings of the artillery. The loſs of Sir James Duffe's column was ſix men killed, ſixteen wounded, and ſix horſes killed.

It appears from other letters, that on Sunday laſt a patrole of cavalry, under the command of Colonel Puleſton, was attacked on their march by a body of rebels from behind hedges, contiguous to the road, and ſuffered ſome loſs in men and horſes.

Major Ormſby, of the city of Limerick militia, has reported from Edenderry, that on the 30th paſt, he had attacked a body of about three hundred rebels, with ſixty infantry and ſome yeoman cavalry, and entirely diſperſed them, killing one hundred. The action took place at Fox's Hill, ſix miles from Edenderry. Major Ormſby returns his thanks to Capt Wakely, Lieuts. Houghton, Tyrrell, and Barlow, and to Lieut. Rogers of the Northumberland fencibles. His detachment experienced only the loſs of two horſes.

Drogheda, July 15.

SIR, Having received information from different quarters on Friday afternoon, that a large body of rebels had aſſembled about Garriſtown, and were marching towards this, I went out with what force I thought it prudent to take from the garriſon here to Duleek, where I arrived at ten o'clock at night the 13th, and got information that the rebels were ſtrongly poſted upon a hill three miles off to the right. Not knowing the country, I remained in Duleek till one o'clock. When I marched to the hill, I found the rebels left it on our coming into Duleek the evening before, and halted at a village near it. I followed them to the village. They had left it about five hours before towards Slane. I thought it probable, from a note I had received from General Meyrick, that he was to march from Taragh Hill to attack the rebels at Caſtletown, that I ſhould hear of him at the Black Lion. We immediately proceeded by two roads towards Slane, as we were informed they were poſted above Lord Boyne's houſe. When we came there, they had left it about three hours, and had paſſed the Boyne above Slane. Finding that we did not come up with them, General Meyrick ſent on Lieutenant Colonel Ord, with the Durham cavalry, to overtake them, and keep them in check, which he did about four or five miles from us on the north ſide of the Boyne road to Ardee, and ſent back for a reinforcement of cavalry. I ordered Colonel Maxwell, with the Dumfries, with General Myrick, to move on, and they found the rebels very ſtrongly poſted behind a defile between two bogs, the paſs only allowing them to paſs by fours. The cavalry drove in their advanced poſt, and charged with great ſpirit; but from the poſition of the enemy, Colonel Maxwell thought it better to wait till the infantry came up, which I did with the Sutherland Highlanders in a very ſhort time, and advanced with my battalion guns. Whenever the rebels perceived us, I ſaw them get into confuſion, and they immediately broke in all directions. I then ordered the cavalry and yeomanry to attack, and I followed with the infantry to ſupport them. The rebels got into the bogs, and the cavalry advanced, killed all they met with, and ſurrounded the bog to the height on the oppoſite ſide. The Highlanders got into the bog and killed all that were in it. Thoſe who got out on the oppoſite ſide were met by the cavalry. From the manner in which they diſperſed, I cannot give an exact account of the killed. We took a great quantity of pikes, piſtols, ſwords, muſkets, &c. and two ſtandards. General Meyrick got one priſoner, who gave him ſome information, and promiſed him more. He took him with him to Navan, ſo that I cannot report any thing with accuracy about him.

The troops behaved with great ſpirit, and bore a great deal of fatigue particularly General Meyricks's diviſion, with a reinforcement from this of the Dumfries, and my light company has been out three nights. I am particularly indebted to the gentlemen yeomanry, and to Mr Trettu Duhelo, who ſerved me as a guide. Any body of the rebels left went on towards Ardee. A great many went round the hill on our right, and came back to Slane, where they aſſembled near it, croſſed the Boyne, and went back towards Garriſtown, where I hope General Meyrick will fall in with them. I reported this to General Campbell laſt night, being under

under his command, and just now received a note from him to inform you of it.

(Signed) W. WEMYSS, M. G.

To Lord Cornwallis's military Secretary.

(To be continued.)

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

Sketch of Europe.

In order to watch the continued accounts of the political occurrences of the day, and vicissitudes of the year, it is indispensibly necessary to be acquainted with the most important changes that have taken place in Europe for the last 150 years: When that equilibrium was fixed, which maintained the independence of the different States, and has been so auspicious to the interests and glory of Europe; but is now in the act of being overturned by irreligion, and insubordination, or, in other words, by French philosophy.

The treaties of Munster and Westphalia made in 1647 and 1648, at the termination of the war of thirty years, begun after the expiration of the twelve years truce between Holland and Spain, 1618, and which divided, in its progress between those, the Catholic and Protestant powers of Europe, regulated the affairs of Germany, reduced the power of Austria, elevated that of Sweden, and, by the acquisition of Alsace, enlarged the French Monarchy.

In 1659, the treaty of the Pyrenees between Philip IV. of Spain, and Cardinal Mazarin, the minister of Lewis XIV. gave to this monarch all Artois, and part of French Flanders.

In 1678, the peace of Nimeguen bounded the French frontier by a larger portion of Flanders.

In 1677, by the peace of Ryswick, Lewis XIV. give up many of his conquests in the Low Countries, because the Spanish King, Charles II. was dying, and he hoped to obtain from him the Spanish monarchy itself (to which the Netherlands belonged), for his grandson, as he died in 1700.

In 1713, by the treaty of Utrecht, Philip V. kept Spain and the Indies; while the House of Austria gained Naples, Sardinia, the Milanese, and the Low Countries.

By the pacification of 1735, France gained Lorraine.

The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748 left matters very much as they were before the war that preceded it began.

The peace of 1763, made little change in Europe. But England gained Canada and Florida: For which she gave up the Havannah, Belleisle, Martinique, Guadaloupe, Manilla, and a few other places of inferior consequence.

By the peace of 1783, America was lost, but France restored to Britain almost all her West India islands.

FRANCE.

In the council of five hundred, on the 11th of July, an address was presented to the assembly, from the United Irishmen residing in Paris: "Upon the great day of the liberty and independence of nations, say they, deign to receive the emblem ever dear to United Irishmen, the harp of Ossian! It is from the heart of oppressed Ireland that you receive this homage." Cambarris, one of the members, delivered an appropriate speech on the occasion: "While Europe," says the orator, "views with attention the distant regions into which France is about to carry the flambeau of knowledge, liberty and the glory of her arms, permit me to fix your attention upon a people, who, like us, have founded their 14th of July, and who likewise will have their Jemappe and Fleurus."—The council ordered the address and speech to be printed.

In our last Number, p. 498, we mentioned the different opinions that were entertained with regard to Buonaparte's expedition. On the 21st of this month, the following intelligence was stuck up at Lloyd's:

East India House, Aug. 21.

By a letter received from Mr Tooke, the East India Company's agent at Constantinople, dated July 23d, it appears by the report of the Captain of the port of Alexandria, who escaped from thence to Cyprus, from whence he has forwarded a dispatch to Constantinople, that Buonaparte actually disembarked at Alexandria, on or about the 8th of July, from 15 to 20,000 men, and that he met with little or no resistance from the Turks. Buonaparte's fleet, ships of war and transports, are stated to be near 300 sail.

GERMANY.

Some time since the negociations at Rastadt seemed to be hastening to a

termination, and a peace with the Emperor appeared to be the refult. Of late a change has taken place, and they have made but little progrefs. Indeed, from the firing of the armament from Toulon they have been almoft fufpended, as if they were waiting the iffue of that important expedition. Though the grand outlines of a treaty of peace be already drawn, a number of new difficulties are daily raifed againft adjufting the minor articles; feveral ftrong holds on the Rhine are claimed by the French republic, and as ftrongly contended for by the empire.

HOLLAND.

The Amfterdam Courant, of the 11th of Auguft contains an intereting article, in the form of a petition to the Batavian Directory, from the merchants of Amfterdam, fetting forth the unprecedented injury done to commerce by the depredations of the French privateers fitted out in Dutch ports. All that efcape the Englifh, it is faid, fall into the hands of thefe fyftematic plunderers. The paper throughout is couched in terms ftrongly indicative of the feelings of the petitioners:

"We had flattered ourfelves (fay they) that our allies, who are furely not too *Great* to be *Juft*, would ere this have been occupied with an inveftigation of thefe abufes, and the immediate remedy of them; but this hope ftill remains ungratified, and the evil increafes. The illicit practices are repeated; indeed, fo openly glaring and infolent are thefe violations of all right and juftice, that, to fay nothing of the total ruin of our navigation, the political and moral confequences refulting from them are fuch, *the bitternefs of which not all the love of our country may be able to foften!*"

The memorialifts propofe, that in future no neutral veffel fhall be liable to be taken by French or Dutch privateers, within the limits of the Republic, under the penalty of 3000 guilders.

SARDINIA.

Great differences having broken out between the fubjects of the Cifalpine and Ligurian republics, and thofe of the King of Sardinia, General Brune on the part of the French republic, and the Marquis Marfan on the part of his Sardinian Majefty, in order to prevent hoftilities between the two republics above mentioned and his Sardinian Majefty, and for the fafety of Piedmont, agreed on the provifional occupation of the citadel of Turin by the French troops: the French army to keep poffeffion of the fortrefs for two months unlefs otherwife ordered by the French Directory and his Sardinian Majefty. After this tranfaction, General Brune publifhed a proclamation relative to the infurgents, and ufed all his endeavours to reftore order and facilitate the return of tranquillity. The French ftill retain poffeffion of the citadel according to agreement.

RUSSIA.

Probably with a view to prevent the progrefs of liberty, the Emperor has attempted to check the expanfion of intellect, and to deftroy the fource of knowledge through his empire. The fchools, which, under the patronage of the Empref, were inftituted for the inftruction of the lower claffes of fociety, and feveral private feminaries for the inftruction of the middle order, have, by a public order of the Emperor, been fuppreffed; ignorance being confidered eflential to fubordination.

The Swifs in Ruffia have been compelled to renounce their country, while the government of it is in the hands of the French.

TURKEY.

An important victory is faid to have been gained, on the 29th of May, by the famous rebel Paffawan Oglou. The number of killed, on the part of the Seraikier Huffein Pacha, is ftated to be 10,000.

The important queftion, whether Buonaparte has landed in Egypt with or without the connivance of the divan, is not determined this 31ft of Auguft.

AMERICA.

The prefident of the United States, on the 21ft of June, fent a meffage to Congrefs with the laft communications from the miniters at Paris, brought by Mr Marfhall. By thefe it appears, that the Directory were very defirous Mr Marfhall and Mr Pinckney fhould depart, but they pofitively refufed Mr Gerry permiffion to go, hoping that he would continue the negociation.

Hoftilities have in fome meafure been already commenced between the infant republics, and it is now fcarcely fuppofed to be poffible to prevent the flames of war from extending itfelf to this part of the world.

Gen. Waffington has accepted the appoint-

pointment of Commander in Chief of the American army. His letter on this occaſion, to the preſident of the United States; with the explanatory treaty between Great Britain, and America will be given in our next number.

EAST INDIES.

Advices were received over land from India on the 22ſt of Auguſt, by the Eaſt Ind a company, announcing the loſs of taree of their ſhips. The Princeſs Amelia, Captain John Ramſden, was burnt by accident off Pigeon iſland, on the Malabar coaſt, on the 5th of April laſt; about forty lives were loſt.

The Raymond, and Woodcot, Captains Smedley and Hanway, were taken by the French frigate La Preceute, in Tellicherry road, on the 20th of April, after a gallant defence.

IRELAND.

The rebel armies under the command of Aylmer and other leaders, have diſperſed upon the expreſs ſtipulation between government and the chiefs, that the latter be allowed to baniſh themſelves to any part of Europe at peace wit', his Majeſty. Adminiſtration have been ſucceſsful in bringing over ſeveral of the principal men among the United Iriſhmen, to give evidence for the Crown againſt their comrades in rebellion; in conſequence of which ſeveral important trials have taken place, and convictions proved.

Mr M'Cann, on the 17th of July, was tried for high treaſon: Thomas Reynolds was ſworn, and depoſed, that he was an United Iriſhman; that he knew the priſoner, who was ſecretary of a baronial committee. The witneſs then explained the nature of the various provincial meetings; the general object of all which, he ſaid, was to overturn the government and eſtabliſh a republican conſtitution with the aid of the French. The witneſs was appointed a treaſurer of a baronial meeting, and had alſo the commiſſion of Colonel given by Lord Edward Fitzgerald. He detailed ſeveral acts of the priſoner as an United Iriſhman, particularly his attending the meeting at Mr Bond's on the 12th of March. The witneſs alſo ſtated, that he diſcloſed the United Iriſhmen's plot to Mr Cope—that he at firſt ſpoke to Mr Cope of a third perſon (meaning himſelf) who was willing, upon certain conditions, to make great diſcoveries. Mr Cope offered a thouſand a year, and a ſeat in parliament; the witneſs, however, would only accept of 500 guineas, an indemnity againſt proſecution, that he ſhould not be obliged to proſecute any perſon, and alſo that the channel of information ſhould be ſecret. When the evidence was cloſed, Mr Curran made a moſt impreſſive and maſterly ſpeech of two hours in favour of the priſoner, and Mr Souria ſpoke nearly as long in reply, after which, and a charge from the Judge, Baron Smith, the jury retired, and in about two minutes brought in a verdict of *Guilty*. This gentleman was executed on the 19th of July, he deported himſelf at this awful period with great fortitude and dignity.

Mr Byrne's trial commenced on the 20th of July, the charges againſt whom were ſubſtantiated by the ſame perſons who appeared againſt M'Cann, whoſe caſe was nearly ſimilar. The priſoner was a delegate from the county of Wicklow. The jury after the ſpeeches from the counſel, and the charge from the judge, retired for a few minutes, and returned with a verdict of *Guilty*.

Mr Bond was alſo tried for high treaſon on the Monday following. Reynolds, as was expected, appeared as an evidence againſt him. He depoſed, that Bond, ſwore him in as an United Iriſhman, and prevailed upon him to take a command in the rebel army. The general evidence was nearly the ſame as that againſt M'Cann and Byrne. The ſtrongeſt point againſt Bond was making his houſe the place of meeting for the United Iriſhmen, particularly on the 12th of March, when they were all apprehended and their deſigns diſcloſed. The jury, on Tueſday morning between ſeven and eight o'clock, found a verdict of *Guilty*.

It appears according to the recent examination of the ſtate priſoners in Ireland, that the government were in poſſeſſion of the whole plan of the United Iriſhmen, and of a copy of the negociation concluded by the Iriſh agent at Liſle, ſo long ago as March laſt. On the examination of Dr M'Nevin, this copy was ſhewn him and proved to be verbatim the ſame as that ſigned at Liſle.

It appears that ſome pretended United

ed Iriſhman, inthe pay of government, conveyed this copy to the Engliſh agent. By this agreement, the Iriſh revolutioniſts were to be aſſiſted by an army of 15,000 Frenchmen, and 70,000 ſtand of arms. The naval expences were to be defrayed by the French, and the French troops were to be taken into pay by the Iriſh, who were alſo to pay for the arms. Government being in poſſeſſion of this plan, it was policy in them to drive the people into open rebellion, in order, by timely cruſhing it, to counteract the effects which the landing of the French might produce.

A bill of attainder againſt the property of the late Lord Edward Fitzgerald, Bagnal Harvey, Mr Grogan, &c. is now before the Iriſh Parliament.

Dublin, Auguſt 23. It appears from the examinations of Dr M'Nevin, Mr Arthur O'Connor, Mr Neilſon, and Counſellor Emmet, as reported by Lord Caſtlereagh, one of the ſecret committee in the Houſe of Commons, that an executive directory of the Iriſh Union was inſtituted at an early period of the diſcontents, of which Lord Edward Fitzgerald, Dr M'Nevin, Arthur O'Connor, and Mr Emmet were members; that in the year 1796, Lord Edward Fitzgerald and Mr Arthur O'Connor ſet out for Paris, in order to negociate with the Executive Directory of France for the invaſion of Ireland by a French force; but that, fearful of a diſcovery of their intention, they proceeded no farther than the Rhine, where they met General Hoche, to whom they communicated the object of their miſſion; that that officer formed arrangements with the Executive Directory accordingly; that a fleet with General Hoche, and a formidable army on board, was, in conſequence of theſe arrangements, ſent to Ireland in the month of December following; but not being expected by the Directory of the Union till the ſpring of 1797, the people were not prepared to receive the enemy when they arrived at Bantry Bay. That Dr M'Nevin afterward went to France on a ſimilar miſſion, and ſucceeded in obtaining a promiſe from the Directory, that another attempt ſhould be made; that a fleet was accordingly fitted out in the Texel, and ſeveral thouſand men embarked on board of it, for the purpoſe of invading Ireland; that the troops, after remaining ſome time on board, were diſembarked; that the fleet, which was under the command of Admiral Winter, put to ſea without the troops (probably for the purpoſe of giving battle to the Britiſh ſquadron, and with the hope of clearing the way for the tranſports to come out); and that the reſult was the glorious victory atchieved by Admiral Duncan on the memorable 11th of October. It appears alſo from the report, that the real object of the Union has all along been the accompliſhment of a revolution, and the ſeparation of Ireland from Great Britain; that parliamentary reform and catholic emancipation have been uſed as mere delutive veils to cover thoſe dark deſigns; that the French Directory, between whom and the Directory of the Union a regular correſpondence was for ſome time kept up, on being applied to for a loan to enable the promoters of the rebellion to effect the propoſed revolution, refuſed to comply with the requeſt, unleſs they were permitted to ſend an army of ſufficient force to take poſſeſſion of the country as a conqueſt to their arms; and, finally, that there is at this moment an agent from the united Iriſhmen reſiding in Paris. Theſe are the leading points of the report of the ſecret committee; but it conſiſts of a variety of other important diſcoveries, a peruſal of which cannot fail to intereſt, in the higheſt degree, not only the people of theſe kingdoms, but every individual in Europe—So complete a developement of ſo deep laid a plot, is a moſt happy circumſtance for both countries. To the vigilance of government we are indebted for the completion of this great work, and the conſequent preſervation of Ireland to the Britiſh crown.

31. Accounts have juſt been received of the landing of a body of French troops, (ſuppoſed about 1500) from three frigates, and a great quantity of arms, &c. in the county of Mayo; that they had taken poſſeſſion of Killala; that the frigates had left the coaſt, and preparations were making to attack the enemy.

LONDON.

The tranſactions which may be properly claſſed under the head Public Affairs, have, during this month, been neither numerous nor important in

Great

Great Britain, on account of the prorogation of the parliament, and the paucity of intelligence from our fleets and armies; until near the end of the month, the moſt vague reports and conjectures relative to the ſituation and fate of the Britiſh and French fleets in the Mediterranean ſeas, occupied the minds and converſation of the public.

It now appears that Buonaparte has reached Alexandria with part of his fleet (ſee p. 569).

Auguſt 2. As Mr John Palmer was performing the part of the Stranger, in the play of that name, on the Liverpool ſtage, he fell down, and expired in a few moments. He has left a large family in diſtreſſed circumſtances, and was appointed, but a few days before his death, acting manager of the Theatre-Royal, Drury-lane. On Thurſday morning he appeared rather dejected, and all the efforts of his friends were ſcarcely capable of rouſing him from that ſtate of melancholy in which he appeared to have ſunk. In the evening of that day he appeared in the character of the Stranger, in the new play of that name, in the two firſt acts he exerted himſelf with great effect: in the third, he diſplayed evident marks of depreſſion, and as he was about to reply to the queſtion of Baron Steinfort, relative to his children, he appeared unuſually agitated. He endeavoured to proceed, but his feelings evidently overcame him; the hand of death acroſſed his progreſs, and he inſtantly fell upon his back, heaved a convulſive ſigh, and inſtantly expired without a groan. Ineledon then came forward to communicate the dreadful circumſtance. The houſe was inſtantly evacuated. The performance announced for Friday was poſtponed, and the houſe ſhut up on the occaſion till Monday, when he was interred at the village of Warton, near Liverpool. Mr Palmer was in the 57th year of his age. A ſtone is to be placed at the head of the grave with the following lines inſcribed, which were the laſt words he ſpoke in the character of the Stranger:

'O God! God!
There is another, and a better world.'

Lieutenant Dawſon, convicted of the murder of Lieutenant Millar, was executed on Pendennen heath. The deceaſed and Dawſon were old friends; but after dinner on the day of the murder, when heated with wine, had ſome angry words. Dawſon went on ſhore, and challenged the other, who treating the matter with levity, irritated Dawſon, and produced the melancholy catastrophe which enſued.

The Navy in commiſſion belonging Great Britain, conſiſts, according to the Navy Liſt, of 140 ſhips of the line, 22 fifties, 165 frigates, and 317 ſloops, making an enormous total of 644 ſhips of war! with ſuch prodigious force it is not wonderful that this country continues the undiſputed miſtreſs of the ſeas—the Texel blocked up by Lord Duncan—Breſt by Lord Bridport—and Cadiz by Lord St Vincent!

The eſtabliſhment of the Army exceeds in proportion even that of the navy. It conſiſts, according to the Monthly Army Liſt, of 41 regular regiments of cavalry, and 110 of infantry; 30 of fencible cavalry, and 42 of infantry; 81 of old militia, and 29 of new; making a grand total of 336 battalions! Beſides invalids and volunteers, which alone exceed 100,000 men.

In the beginning of the month, a fleet arrived from the Eaſt Indies, of five ſhips from Bengal, and two from Bombay. Accounts have ſince been received of the loſs of four of the company's ſhips in the Eaſt Indies; the two captured, had taken in part of their cargoes, conſiſting chiefly of price goods and pepper. A large fleet from the Weſt Indies, has alſo arrived ſafe, conſiſting of 82 ſail from Jamaica, and 32 from the Windward iſlands, which, however, has but little affected the market: all Weſt India goods continue high on account of the demand from the continent.

Bank of England report to Friday Auguſt 24.

Voluntary	1,456,290	1	6
Aſſeſſed taxes	815,188	1	4
L.	2,271,478	2	10

EDINBURGH.

Aug. 1. This forenoon, a chaiſe with company, in paſſing from South to North Leith, by the Draw Bridge, unfortunately overturned, by the inattention of the driver taking too ſhort a turn, and fell on the deck of a ſloop. It is remarkable the company received no material injury. One wheel and the

the lamps of the carriage were broke, and the horfes only flightly hurt.

The annual competition for prizes, given by the Highland Society of London to the three beft performers on the great Highland bag-pipe, was held in the Theatre Royal, in prefence of a Commitee of Judges appointed by the Highland Society of Scotland, and a numerous and refpectable audience.

The firft prize, being a handfome pipe, adorned with a handfome plate, on which there has been fince engraved the proper infeription, together with 40 merks in money, was adjudged by the Commitee, and the pipe delivered by their Prefes, in prefence of the audience, to Donald M'Eatchar, piper to the 1ft battalion of the Scots Royals.

The Company were alfo pleafed and entertained with the dancing of Highland reels, which were very properly introduced between the acts—Several young Highlanders, and to whom prizes are given, having difcovered great dexterity and neatnefs in this mode of dancing.

5. Yefterday morning a duel was fought in the King's Park between Lieut. Col. Neville of the Ruthlandfhire cavalry, and Mr Baillie late of the fame corps, when the former gentleman was unfortunately wounded; the ball has been extracted, and it is hoped he will do well.

6. This day came on the trial of Alexander Macdonald, Efq. of Glengary, indicted for the murder of Lieut. Norman M'Leod, of the 42d regiment, in a duel near Fort George, on the 3d of May laft, the particulars of which will be given in our next.

12. This day the annual examination of the High School took place. The gold medal was adjudged to Mr Thomas Walker, fon of Mr William Walker, brewer, Little Kerfe, parifh of Polmont.

13. Two Dutch Greenlandmen (with nearly 20 fifh between them,) were fent up to Leith Roads on Saturday by the Apollo frigate. They are a part of a fleet which failed under the Pruffian flag; four others have been fent to England.

Singular Fraud.—A perfon of the name of *Kirkby*, alias *Palmer*, was on Monday committed to Tothil-fields Bridewell, under the charge of Forgery, and obtaining confiderable fums of money upon falfe pretences in Scotland. Laft month the prifoner obtained value from the Britifh Linen Company, for a bill of 700l. drawn upon a houfe in London. This bill, however, was refufed to be accepted, and notice fent to the Britifh Linen Company, that the houfe upon which it was drawn knew nothing of the drawer. Upon the bill being returned unaccepted, an inquiry was immediately made after the prifoner, who lived in an elegant ftyle at Marionville, near Edinburgh; but, on applying at his houfe, it was found he had fet off a few days before in his curricle, accompanied by a young lady who lived with him, and attended by a fervant on horfeback. The prifoner is alfo charged with having, under the name of *Palmer*, obtained a confiderable fum of money from the agent of the Bank of Scotland, at Stranraer, for a pretended draught of the Marquis of Downfhire on the cafhier of the Bank of England. —He is a handfome man, of about 30 years of age, and very genteel appearance and addrefs.

RACES

Monday, July 30. Edinburgh plate, was won by Mr Cathcart's *Wanley*.

Tuefday, King's purfe, by Col. Hamilton's chefnut horfe *Mr Robert*.

Wednefday. Subfcription purfe, by Sir Hedworth Williamfon's *Hamilton*.

Thurfday, Hunter's purfe, by Col. Baird's *Pyelaid*.

Friday, Lady's purfe, by Col. Hamilton's *Mr Robert*. There was afterwards a match in which two gentleman rode their own horfes.

Saturday, Purfe for beaten horfes, by Mr Iniry's *Sparrow hawk*.

The public amufements during the race week were:

Aflemblies,	3	Highland Pipers,	
Concerts,	2	Plays,	6

Mr and Mrs Pope have been the chief fupports of the Theatre.

DURING the month of Auguft, the weather has been uncommonly fine. The thermometer has ranged, in the fhade, from 48 to 58 and excepting from the 11th to 15th, there has been little rain: the harveft every where is greatly advanced, moft of the corn counties had nearly all cut down, and the wheat in the barn yard by the 30th of Auguft. The reports from all corners, ftate the crop to be remarkably good in quality, not very abundant, though fully anfwering the idea of a middling crop; the potatoe crop

crop is alſo abundant and good. Markets have been moderate, beſt beef and mutton 5d per lb., veal 6d lb; good lamb from 1s. 6d. and 2s per quarter; the ſupply of white fiſh has not been great; herrings have appeared at the mouth of the Frith very good, but not in plenty as yet.

The Engliſh report ſays the harveſt in moſt of the ſouthern diſtricts is now pretty far advanced, and the crops in general favourable. In the midland, and ſome other counties, our reporters ſpeak of their being uncommonly plentiful; this is not however ſo much the caſe in the northern parts of the iſland, though we believe there is every where what may be ſaid to be a good crop; at leaſt of wheat. The Pea and Bean crops are not on the whole ſo promiſing as might have been expected, tho' in many places they are by no means an indifferent one. The hay harveſt is now moſtly over, and has been generally more favourable than was imagined. The ſecond crop alſo appears to be good in many places, and much of it is well got in. The turnips are almoſt every where promiſing.

LISTS.

MARRIAGES.

July 24. At Springfield, George Inglis, Eſq; of Demerary, to Miſs Helen Alves, daughter of the late Dr John Alves, phyſician in Inverneſs.

26. At Culloden Houſe, Hugh Robert Duff, Eſq; of Muirtown, to Miſs Sarah Louiſa Forbes, daughter of Arthur Forbes, Eſq; of Culloden.

28. George Wilſon, Eſq; of Scottendeugh, to Miſs Robertſon, eldeſt daughter of John Robertſon, Eſq; of Cheſterhall.

Aug. 6. At Leith, Mr Robert M'Blair, merchant in Glaſgow, to Miſs Jeannie Johnſton, youngeſt daughter of the Rev. Dr Johnſton.

7. The Hon. Colonel John Hope, to Miſs Eliza Hope, daughter of the late Hon. Charles Hope Weir, of Craigiehall.

8. At Edinburgh, Captain David Williamſon, 2d battalion 4th fencibles, to Miſs Charlotte Bartlet, daughter of Benjamin Bartlet, Eſq; ſtorekeeper, Edinburgh Caſtle.

11. At Ednam, Robert Logan, Eſq; of Burnhall, to Miſs Eliza Manſon, daughter of Major Manſon of Ednam.

12. Mr Robert Hall, merchant in Edinburgh, to Miſs Martha Reoch, daughter of Hugh Reoch, Eſq.

13. Mr James Ainſlie, merchant in Leith, to Miſs Mary Reid, daughter of Alexander Reid, Eſq; of Rathobank.

— At Haddington, Mr Peter Halkerſton, writer in Edinburgh, to Miſs Nancy Craw, daughter of John Craw, Eſq. of Gladſhot.

14. Robert Haig, Eſq; of Allon, to Miſs Caroline Wolſeley, daughter of Sir Wm Wolſeley, Bart.

17. At Stirling, Mr John Reid, merchant in Leith, to Miſs Suſan Douglas, daughter of Wm Douglas, Eſq. of Leith.

20. The Rev. Dr Thomas Davidſon of Muirhouſe, to Miſs Elizabeth Cockburn, daughter of the Hon. Baron Cockburn.

— Mr William Milne, merchant in Leith, to Miſs Margaret Fiffe, daughter of Barclay Fiffe, Eſq; merchant in Leith.

— At Glaſgow, Robert Semple, Eſq; Advocate, younger of Earnock, to Miſs Mary Henderſon, daughter of James Henderſon, Eſq; of Enoch Bank.

24. Thomas Shaw, Eſq, of Dunmay, to Miſs Eliza Jean Rattray, daughter of Thomas Rattray, Eſq; of Dalnulzian.

BIRTHS.

July 26. The Lady of Capt. Campbell, of King's dragoon-guards, of a ſon.

28. Lady Ann Hope, a ſon.

31. Mrs Macleod, of Dalvey, a ſon.

— Viſcounteſs Fielding, a ſon.

Aug. 4. Mrs Kinloch of Kinloch, a daughter.

17. Mrs Lawrenſon of Inverighty, a daughter.

18. Mrs Campbell of Fairfield, a daughter.

20. Mrs Veitch of Elliock, a daughter.

25. Mrs Captain Hamilton of Fairholm, a daughter.

DEATHS.

In Germany, General Claiſfait. He commanded a part of the Emperor's army in Flanders in the preſent war.

At Edinburgh, John Haſtie, chelſea penſioner, aged 102 years. He was at the battle of Sheriffmuir, in the year 1715. He retained his faculties to the laſt, and was able to walk about till the end of May laſt.

July 2. At Culroſs, Mr Alexander Chalmers, ſurgeon, and captain of the Volunteer Company in that place.

2. At Irvine, John Campbell, Eſq; of Corraith, Captain in the Eaſt India Company's ſervice.

4. At Aberdeen, Mr Peter Cuſſnie, merchant, and late one of the Magiſtrates of that city.

5. James Reid, Esq; Rear-Admiral in his Majesty's navy.

6. Colonel John Cockerell, late of the East India Company's service, Bengal.

8. At Liverpool, Captain William Blair, late of the 13th foot, youngest son of the deceased Alexander Blair, Esq; of Dunroad.

10 At Edinburgh, Mrs Abercromby, wife of Alexander Abercromby, Esq; clerk to the signet.

11. Mr David Black, junior, merchant in Glasgow.

14. At Tallisker, Lieutenant Col. John Macleod, in the 80th year of his age, of the late Scots Brigade, in the service of the States General.

18. At Edinburgh, Mr George Wright, writer.

19. At Broughton Court, near Edinburgh, Robert Lidderdale, M. D.

— At Glasgow, Cornet James Wylie, of the Princess Royal's light dragoons.

20. At Hampstead, Mrs Beckford, relict of the Rt Hon. Wm Beckford, twice Lord Mayor of London, and daughter of and co heir of the Hon. George Hamilton, son of James, 6th Earl of Abercorn.

24. At London, Mr Serjeant Adair, M. P. Chief Justice of Chester.

— At Edinburgh, Mr George Martin, writer.

24. At Old Deer, the Rev. Mr John Watt, minister of the Episcopal congregation there.

27. John Dickson, Esq; of Upper Lockerwoods.

29. Suddenly, the Rev. Mr John Barclay, minister of the Berean congregation in Edinburgh.

31. At Edinburgh, Mr John Dunsmure, merchant, in the 95th year of his age.

Aug. 3. At Tidwell house, Devonshire, Lady Doune, daughter of the late General Scott, and Sister of the Marchioness of Titchfield.

7. At Sunderland, John Dobson, aged 113.

9. At Muggington, in Derbyshire, Mrs Alice Rider. By her husband, who is still living, she has left 119 children, grandchildren, and great-grand-children.

11. At Edinburgh, Lady Mary Ann Kemp, sister of the Earl of Northesk, and spouse to the Rev. Dr Kemp, one of the ministers of Edinburgh.

— At Balbedie, James Malcolm, Esq; of Balbedie.

12. At Weymouth, Mrs Gordon of Braid.

14. At Stirling, Wm Burn, Esq; of Coldoch, in the 89th year of his age.

20. At St Mary's Isle, Lady Mary Douglas, daughter of the Earl of Selkirk.

20. At Yetholm, Mr John Walker, surgeon, in the 83d year of his age.

21. At Steuarthall, James Steuart, Esq; of Steuarthall.

— At Glasgow, Thomas Hart, Esq; late merchant in Hamilton.

23. At Saltcoats, Lieutenant John Richardson of the 1st foncibles.

PREFERMENTS.

James Bontein, Esq; the honour of Knighthood.

Sir Robert Calder, Knight, Captain in the navy, the dignity of a Baronet.

The degree of M. D. on Mr Mortlew Poole, Staff Surgeon in Ireland, by the University of St Andrews.

PROMOTIONS.

Colonels of the Scotch Militia.

1st, or Argyllshire, Regiment, John Campbell, Esq.

2d, or Rossshire, Regiment, Francis Lord Seaforth.

3d, or Lanarkshire, Regiment, Douglas Duke of Hamilton.

4th, or Dumfriesshire, Regiment, Charles Earl of Dalkeith.

5th, or Fifeshire, Regiment, James Duke of Montrose.

6th, or Aberdeenshire, Regiment, George Earl of Glasgow.

8th, or Forfar, Regiment, Archibald Lord Douglas.

9th, or Perthshire, Regiment, John Duke of Athol.

10th, or Edinburgh, Regiment, Henry Duke of Buccleugh.

SEQUESTRATIONS.

Aug. 6. Mrs Mary Nicholson, alias Aitchison, and William Aitchison, writer, her husband, merchants in Dumfries.

9. George Leslie of Summerhall, dealer in cattle.

— Timothy Fisher, late dyer at Candachie.

23. Mrs Mary Gall, broker, Edinburgh.

24. Thomas Milne, junior, leather-merchant, Edinburgh.

24. Wm Duncan, merchant in Ayr.

Haldington, Aug. 24.

Wheat, 25s. 6d. Barley, 19s. 6d. Oats, 15s. Peafe, 15s. Beans, 14s. 6d.

Edinburgh, Aug. 27. Oat-meal, 1s. 1d. Bear-meal, 11d. Peafe-meal, 9d.

PRICES OF STOCKS.

Aug. 14.	Aug. 23.
Bank Stock 125½	131
3 per cent. red. 49¾	50½
3 per cent. conf. 49¼	50¼
4 per cent. 65¼	66¼
India Stock 146	149½

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For SEPTEMBER 1798.

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EDINBURGH:

Sold by James Watson, No 40. South Bridge,
And by the Principal Booksellers in Town and Country.
And by T. Kay, Strand, London.

NEW DISCOVERIES.

Subſtitute for Oil Paint.

A cheap and general ſubſtitute for Oil Paint is thus prepared:—Take freſh curds, and bruiſe the lumps on a grinding ſtone, or in an earthen pan or mortar, with a ſpatula. Put them in a pot, with an equal quantity of lime well quenched, and become thick enough to be kneaded; ſtir this mixture well, without adding water, till it produces a white-coloured fluid; with this (which muſt be uſed directly, as it becomes too thick by ſtanding) Ochre, Armenian bole, and all colours which hold with lime may be mixed. It dries ſo rapidly, that two coats may be laid on the ſame day: It has no ſmell; is durable, and will receive, by means of rubbing with a woolen cloth, or other proper ſubſtance, a high poliſh.

Dying Red.

From a report made to the council of the mines in Spain by D. Ferdenandez, their inſpector, concerning a new dying wood from Guiana, named *puraguatan*, it appears to poſſeſs a ſuperiority over brazil and log-wood in producing ſhades of red of a more durable nature. Its botanical ſpecies is not yet aſcertained; but the knowledge of the wood ſeems to be extending. The bark is the part moſt valuable in dying.

New Plants uſed for Food.

There grows upon the river Mobile a ſpecies of palm, which is but little known to naturaliſts, but which promiſes to be an important article of food to man. It has no ſtalk or ſtem above ground. The leaves ſpread regularly all round, and when fully expanded are flabelliform. In the centre of theſe leaves is produced the receptacle of the fruit, which is of the form and ſize of a ſugar loaf. This receptacle conſiſts of a vaſt number of drupes, or berries, of the ſize and ſhape of common plums: each is covered with a fibrous, farinaceous, pulpy coating of conſiderable thickneſs. This ſubſtance is ſaid to reſemble manna in texture, colour, and taſte; or, perhaps, it more reſembles moiſt brown ſugar, with particles of loaf ſugar mixt with it. It is a moſt delicious and nouriſhing food, and is diligently ſought after in the places where it grows. Upon firſt taſting it, it is ſomewhat bitter and pungent*.

* The large tuberous roots of the Smilax China afford our ſouthern Indians a nouriſhing food. The freſh roots are well macerated in wooden mortars. The maſs is then put into veſſels nearly filled with clear water, where it is well mixed with paddles. It is decanted off into other veſſels, where it is left to ſettle, and after the ſubſidence is completed, the water is caſt off, leaving the farinaceous ſubſtance at the bottom. When this is taken out and dried, it is an impalpable powder of a reddiſh colour. Mixed with boiling water, it becomes a beautiful jelly, which, when ſweetened with honey or ſugar, affords a moſt nouriſhing and pleaſant food for children or aged people. The Indians ſometimes uſe it mixed with fine corn-flour, and fryed in freſh bears' oil *.

* From the information of Mr William Bartram. M. M.

THE SCOTS MAGAZINE,

For SEPTEMBER 1798.

ACCOUNT OF THE LIFE AND WRITINGS OF THE LATE JOHN MACLAURIN, ESQ. OF DREGHORN*;

ONE OF THE SENATORS OF THE COLLEGE OF JUSTICE.

JOHN MACLAURIN, afterwards Lord Dreghorn, was born at Edinburgh on the 15th December 1734, O. S. He was the eldeſt ſon of the celebrated Colin Maclaurin, Profeſſor of Mathematics in that Univerſity: and of Anne Stewart, daughter of Mr Walter Stewart of Stewarthall, in Stirlingſhire, for ſome time his Majeſty's Solicitor General for Scotland, in the Reign of George the Firſt.

The exertions which Profeſſor Maclaurin had made in the year 1745, by planning the fortifications of the town of Edinburgh, in order to put it in a ſtate of defence againſt the rebels, obliged him to fly his native country when the army of the pretender advanced thither. Thus exiled, he took refuge in the hoſpitable manſion of Dr Heron, then Archbiſhop of York, where he found a ſafe aſylum; but upon his return to his country after the rebellion ceaſed, from having caught a cold on the journey, he was attacked with a dropſy, which proved mortal, in the year 1746. As he was a man of no penurious diſpoſition, he left his family, conſiſting of a widow, two ſons, and three daughters, but indifferently provided; his name, and a ſmall eſtate in Berwickſhire, were their only inheritance. The former was indeed a great one; but, to our author and his brother, on account of their youth, of little avail: the latter yielded no more than a bare competence for the education and maintenance of the family.

The attention and friendſhip which the good Archbiſhop of York had ſhewn to the father, when a patriot refugee, was, at his death, transferred with generous remembrance to his ſons. His Grace, deſirous of having the ſuperintendence of their education, after conſulting with Mrs Maclaurin, uſed his intereſt to procure admiſſion for our author and his younger brother into the charter-houſe in London. His exertions, however, were unavailing, for it happened that the former was too old, the latter too young, to be admitted.

It was on this account reſolved that our author ſhould be educated in Scotland; and, accordingly, at the uſual age, he was put to the high ſchool of Edinburgh, to learn the rudiments of the Latin language. Here he continued five years, (five miſerable years he uſed to call them) making a very great proficiency in the language; not by labour or uncommon application, but in conſequence of that vigour and quickneſs of apprehenſion which nature had beſtowed upon him with ſo profuſe a hand: for, though it is true, that the idleneſs and inattention excuſable at that early age, prevented him often from acquiring, and almoſt always from retaining that great ſuperiority of rank in the claſs, which his parts and knowledge entitled him to hold; yet, ſuch was his acuteneſs, that,

* Prefixed to his Works in 2 Vols. 8vo. juſt publiſhed.

that, even when lured from his books by boyiſh frolics, he was always able to keep a very reſpectable place at ſchool.

At this very early period of life, he diſplayed a natural turn for poetical compoſition, and, among his ſchool-fellows, was diſtinguiſhed by the name of Poet. Indeed our author had not only an early, but a conſtant attachment to the Muſes, and it may, therefore, be thought ſurpriſing, that he did not exert his poetical talents more than he has done; and that what he has written is chiefly upon local ſubjects, and ſuch as probably, in theſe times, will not pleaſe the Republic of Letters.

Our author afterwards went through the uſual academical courſe at the Univerſity of Edinburgh, where he ſtill continued to make a very great proficiency in the learned languages. He diſtinguiſhed himſelf alſo in the different ſciences to which he then bent his attention; although he uſed often to mention, with regret, that he did not make ſo rapid a progreſs in theſe as he would have wiſhed, from having been ſent to college at too early an age to be able to enter fully into the abſtruſe ſtudies, which are underſtood to form an eſſential part of an univerſity education.

The pleaſure our author had in reading debates, ancient and modern, and in hearing the pleadings at the Scotch bar, made him deſirous of following the profeſſion of a Barriſter; although he was diſſuaded from it, on account of the narrowneſs of his fortune, and the want of powerful connections to puſh him forward: his friends had intended him for the Church, but the gravity of a clergyman was not ſuited to his lively temper. He determined, however, to be guided by his own inclination; and accordingly, after ſtudying and making himſelf perfectly maſter of the Civil and Scotch Law, he was, in Auguſt 1756, admitted a member of the Faculty of Advocates at Edinburgh. Previous to this, he, at leiſure hours, overcame the fatigue of legal ſtudy, by occaſionally indulging himſelf in peruſing his favourite claſſics, and improving his taſte for the muſes.

The firſt practice he had at the bar was before the General Aſſembly of the Church of Scotland; a court which, from its popular conſtitution, young Barriſters are accuſtomed to conſider as one of the beſt theatres which this part of the iſland affords for diſplaying their abilities. In that court he was always employed on the ſide of oppoſition, that is, the party which oppoſe the ſettlement of miniſters in churches by preſentation from patrons; and he ſoon diſtinguiſhed himſelf in his pleadings and writings, by brilliancy of wit, and force of argument.

Such promiſing talents were not long unrewarded; for in the courſe of a few years, they were the means of introducing him into very conſiderable practice, both before the Civil and Criminal Courts of his country.

It was not as a mere lawyer that he acquired a reputation in the world; for, by means of his abilities, learning and urbanity, he ſoon gained the acquaintance and friendſhip of men of rank, fortune, talents, and literature; and, as he often with pleaſure mentioned, it was the intimate friendſhip of a few of theſe that was the greateſt ſolace he had in the decline of life.

In June 1762, Mr Maclaurin married Miſs Eſther Cunninghame, ſecond daughter of Dr George Cunninghame, phyſician in Edinburgh, by whom he had ten children, five ſons and five daughters. With this amiable woman he lived in the utmoſt ſtate of conjugal felicity till the year 1780, when ſhe was cut off by a putrid fever, caught from a favourite ſon, whom ſhe ſurvived only a few hours. This was an irretrievable loſs to our author and his numerous young family. How much his fine feelings were wounded by this ſevere blow, appears evident from the epitaph he wrote and intended for her

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tomb some years after, in which he very justly and pathetically asserts, that her only failing was "too much sensibility."

In 1782 a Royal Society was established in Edinburgh, composed of all the men of learning and genius in the country. Mr Maclaurin had the honour of being appointed one of the constituent members of this institution, in the royal charter which was procured for it, and soon after read before them an Essay to prove that Troy was not taken by the Greeks.

After having, for many years, practised with great assiduity and success at the Scotch bar, and having at last forgot the griefs of a husband in the cares of a father, he was promoted to the Bench, through the interest of his friend the Right Honourable Henry Dundas, at present one of his Majesty's Secretaries of State; and in January 1788 took his seat as a Senator of the College of Justice, under the title of Lord Dreghorn; a title he assumed from a villa near Edinburgh, which he purchased upon the sale of his paternal estate a considerable time before. Being situated about five miles from the metropolis, it afforded him, in the time of vacation, an agreeable retreat from business, and enabled him to enjoy, in retirement, those classical authors which were his chief companions and comforters in the evening of his days. During the enjoyment, for nearly nine years, of the judicial trust committed to him, he had the satisfaction to find, that the efforts he made as a Judge in the impartial administration of justice, obtained the universal approbation of the practitioners of Court, and of the public at large.

In 1791 domestic distress again embittered his happiness, in consequence of the death of his eldest daughter, who caught the infection of a putrid fever, in paying the last tribute of affection to a dying brother. The father too, in the utmost grief, was attacked with a slow fever, from which, he imagined, he never entirely recovered.

His attention, however, to the duties of his office, continued unabated, till 1796, when (on December 24th,) he died of a putrid fever, aged nearly sixty-two, leaving two sons and a daughter. He was interred in the Grey-friars church yard, in the same grave with his father.

Mr Maclaurin was a thin spare man, nearly six feet high: in his face there was something very expressive; in his figure something eccentric, but both were striking and interesting; and those who have seen and known him, will probably acknowledge the truth of the common observation, that there is always something remarkable in the appearance of a man of genius.

The prominent features in Mr Maclaurin's character were, vivacity and quickness of apprehension: he was a tolerable Greek, an excellent Latin scholar. In the latter part of his life, he employed a great part of his leisure hours in studying the French language, from having a great taste for French literature. Though no foreigner can acquire a knowledge of that language sufficient to enable him to write it correctly, yet he translated most of his poetical, and many of his prose pieces into French, and thus lost the most precious hours of his life in a labour which must have been no less tedious than unavailing: he, however, could converse in this language fluently enough, and understood a little of the Italian.

He had a most retentive memory; few men read more, none retained what they read better: he never was at a loss for some apposite quotation from classical authors, especially from the Latin poets; in his selection of these he was peculiarly happy; they gave ease and grace to his pleadings, force and elegance to his writings.

Mr Maclaurin had associated with the first people of rank and abilities in

the country, and was a member of moſt of the clubs compoſed of the Wits of the day. His learning introduced him into the ſociety of the grave, his vivacity recommended him to the company of the gay: domeſtic diſtreſs indeed made him become retired and abſtemious.

For the laſt few years of his life he ſeldom dined from home; a habit of ſtudy leading him to fly the buſtle of the world, and to ſeek in books and contemplation, pleaſures more congenial to his ſoul. In company, he grew latterly, for the moſt part, ſilent and reſerved; but when he choſe to unbend, (as at times he would,) no perſon made a more agreeable companion, or was better qualified to promote convivial converſation.

He was remarkably ſuſceptible of cold, and very apprehenſive when the leaſt ailment ſeized him: he was rather hot and haſty in his temper; but being naturally good humoured, paſſion, in him, was no ſooner raiſed than it was quelled. He was an affectionate huſband, an indulgent father, a kind brother, and an eaſy maſter.

As a Lawyer, Mr Maclaurin always had a moſt reſpectable character. Though he was not remarkable for oratorical powers, yet his figure and action were graceful enough; his voice, though not ſtrong, was agreeable; but, from the want of teeth, rendered rather monotonous. If he wanted manner in his pleadings, he ſupplied the defect by the matter: a profound knowledge of the law, together with an extenſive acquaintance with the world, found argument, ſterling wit, elegant, often eloquent language, commanded attention, and enforced conviction. His papers were written in a clear, energetic ſtyle; replete with legal knowledge, and graced with claſſical alluſions; argumentative, never verboſe; adorned, never overloaded with wit.

As a Judge, he was high in public eſteem: he had a clear head, and a ſound underſtanding: he heard with patience, and determined with deliberation. Conſcience was his guide, and Juſtice his aim. His quickneſs and penetration gave diſpatch to buſineſs, and made the burden, which was heavy upon others who did leſs, ſit light upon him who did more: his only failing, (if it can be conſidered as ſuch) was a ſeeming unſteadineſs of opinion, which proceeded from the moſt anxious deſire to find out the truth, and to diſcharge his duty with impartiality. Human judgment in the beſt will err, but he is an upright judge whoſe conſcience, though he may ſometimes be wrong, cannot upbraid him.

Mr Maclaurin, from his earlieſt years, was the friend and lover of liberty; and wherever he found oppreſſion, he was an advocate againſt it: from his extenſive reading, he had acquired a liberality of mind, and independence of ſpirit, which made him think and judge for himſelf; the welfare and happineſs of mankind were the great objects of his ſpeculations: he was jealous of the encroachments of the Crown, and regarded, as unjuſtifiable, every attempt to oppreſs the people.

He had ſeen America ſtruggle for independence; he predicted the conſequence of the fatal meaſures purſued againſt her; and with thoſe who thought as he did, he ſhared the obloquy of the day: he ſaw America ſucceſsful, he could not but rejoice in the event. He lived to ſee another revolution; monarchy aboliſhed, and a ſtruggle for a republic, in France: he lamented the cruelties that were exerciſed in this bold attempt: he pitied the monarch who fell; he looked forward with anxiety to the new government: he beheld, in the dawning republic, a nation contending for its freedom; and an audacious experiment attempted,—the reformation of mankind: he thought the old ſyſtem in France bad, what the new one would be no man could predict. The arms-

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